

T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of *January*, 1784.

Καρακτακος επι Μωυη. *Sive Cl. Masoni Caractacus Græco Car-
mine redditus cum Versione Latina. A Georgio Henrico Glasſe,
A. B. Œdis Chriſti Alumno. 8vo. 5s. Gardner.*

THAT the author, in this arduous undertaking, should sometimes fail; that Caractacus should appear with greater ease and dignity in his British garb than Grecian vest, will surprise no one who is acquainted with the original; for how can any additional embellishments be expected to heighten the beauties of a performance, where strength of reason unites with the boldest flights of imagination; where elevation of sentiment and brilliancy of expression are conspicuous in the most eminent degree, and reflect a mutual light to adorn each other? The disadvantage, therefore, this gentleman labours under, and the difficulty of the attempt, may, in many respects, apologize for some defective passages which we shall proceed to consider.

Aulus Didius opens the Drama with the following lines:

‘ This is the secret centre of the isle.

Here, Romans, pause, and let the eye of wonder

Gaze on the solemn scene; behold yon oak,

How stern he frowns, and with his broad brown arms

Chills the pale plain beneath him:”—

They are thus rendered by Mr. Glasſe.

‘ Νησου λαθραῖον ἤκομεν πρὸς ὀμφαλόν*.

‘ Ὁρᾷθ’, ὁράτε θαῦμα—Δρῦς παλαίφατος

‘ Ὅζοισι πυκνοῖς ἐξαναψύχει * πῆδον.’

* It is spelt in the translation ἐξαναψύχει; but as we know of no such word, and apprehend it to have been an error of the press, we have substituted that in its place for which we suppose it was intended.

This is the literal re-translation. 'Arrived at the secret centre of the island, behold, behold a wonder!'—Now, what is this wonder? 'The ancient oak makes the plain cold with its thick branches.' What a strange falling off is this at the first onset! In justice however to Mr. Glaspe we must allow, that the remaining part of the speech preserves its pristine dignity.—When Arviragus, like Shakspeare's Edgar, enumerates his various artifices to escape his enemies, and 'win obscurity to shroud his name,' we have, among others, these very expressive lines:

'How, now a peasant from a beggarly scrip
I sold cheap food to slaves, that nam'd the price,
Nor after gave it. Now a minstrel poor
With ill-tun'd harp, and uncouth descant shrill
I ply'd a thriftless trade——'

Though the subsequent passage retains the sense, yet the spirit is entirely lost:

'Νῦν γευτοπώλης ἐν μέσῳ δῆμῳ λαθόν·
Νῦν βάρβιτον ἐφόρησα δυσφώνεσάτον,
Οὕτως ἵν' ἐχθρῶν ἐκφύγῃ ζητήματα.'

The following is one of the most beautiful and highly-finished images we can recollect in any author: A noble counterpart to Shakspeare's personification of the same ideal being, whom he represents as 'sitting on a monument, smiling at grief.'

'Patience here,
Her meek hands folded on her modest breast,
In mute submission lifts th' adoring eye,
Ev'n to the storm that wrecks her.'

'Ἡ Καρτέρησις ἐνθάδ', εἰς ἡρώϊκόν
Στήθος χέρας τιθεῖσα, χειμέριον μένος
Ἀνέμῳ βαρυπνέοντος ἰφθίμως φέρει,
Καὶ τῆς θυέλλας προσκυνεῖ σιγῇ Θεόν.'

This is spoken by the first person of the chorus to Caractacus and Evelina, but seems peculiarly addressed to the latter as a feminine virtue, and recommended to her imitation. An idea totally destroyed by ἡρώϊκόν στήθος and ἰφθίμως φέρει. The lines are not bad; but resignation, not fortitude, is inculcated in the original. We meet with similar defects in other places. For instance,

'———Ναὶ, τάλαιν' Εὐηλίην,
'Απ' ἀσθενὲς ἀπελθε, καὶ καλὰ φρένει·
Οὐ γάρ ἐσάωσα τὴν ἄπετμον μητέρα.'

But

But in the original, Caractacus neither desires his daughter to leave nor despise him ; he merely says,

‘ Ah Evelina !

Hang not thus weeping on the feeble arm
That could not save thy mother.’

To this she replies,

‘ To hang thus
Softens the pang of grief.’

How unlike to this is the translation ?

‘ Καὶ μὴν γλύκισον, ὦ φίλον πατρός κάρα,
Οὕτως ἐφ’ ἡδὺν ἐμπεσεῖν βραχίονα.’

The first line has no authority, and the second is not just ; as ἐμπεσεῖν has a more violent signification than ‘ to hang upon,’ and of course not congruous with the original idea. The exclamation ὦ φίλον πατρός κάρα is consonant to the manners and idiom of Greece, but not to those of the speaker. γλύκισον and ἡδὺν is tautology.

Would any one suppose the following tame lines intended for a translation of the bold figurative passage we shall subjoin to them ?

‘ Ὅμως δὲ ταῖς μαλακόφροσιν ὡδαῖς
Μῶνα χρήσεθ’, ὥς διδάξαν
Πάτρες λυρωδοί,
Σοφίας ἐριλαμπέος ἡγεμονῆες.’

‘ But to thee no ruder spell
Shall Mona use, than those that dwell
In music’s secret cells, and lie
Steep’d in the stream of harmony.’

Not less weakened appears the animated apostrophe of Caractacus to the Chorus, who had endeavoured to impress on his mind thoughts of peace and resignation.

‘ O holy men !
Ye are the sons of piety and peace ;
Ye never felt the sharp vindictive spur
That goads the injur’d warrior ; the hot tide
That flushes crimson on the conscious cheek
Of him who burns for glory ; else indeed
Ye much would pity me.’

It is thus translated.

‘ Ὑμεῖς ἐν ὀλβῳ, χήσυχῳ, θεοπρόπῃ,
Γηράσκει· εἰ δὲ κέντρον, ὦ δυσάμμορος
Ἀναξ κακῆται, τὴν τε σεμνὴν ἔκτασιν
Ἐνθυσιασμόν τ’ ἀνέρος στρατηγέτε
Ἐνοήσατ’, οἰκτείροιτ’ ἂν ἀθλιώτατον,’

How much of the spirit is evaporated by transfusion, notwithstanding the 'holy extacy and enthusiasm' which Caractacus boasts of: the mention of which, we think, he had much better have omitted. They would have suited a parliamentary general in the days of Cromwell; a Saracen leader under one of the first Caliphs; or a judge of Israel warring against the Canaanites: but they neither agree with the original, nor character of the old Briton. In the very next speech, as Mr. Glasse has made it, he is censured by the Chorus for his want of sanctity.—Indeed this gentleman does not always pay sufficient attention to the costume, but at times blends together the classic and Celtic manners. Thus when Caractacus describes the trees as 'proudly spreading their leafy honours 'gainst the tyrannous North,' we find in the translation, Boreas himself personally introduced.

‘Ὁ Ζοισιν, ὡς θώραξι, τὸν δυσίμερον
Βορέην ἀπείργειδ', ὅστις ἀρκτία πνοή'

This figurative expression might have been given to Aulus Didius with propriety, but being inconsistent with British mythology, should here have been avoided. This is not the only place where the wind is thus injudiciously personified. In another, the chief of the Chorus tells Caractacus,

‘Αὐτὸς θέλημ' Ὀλυμπίων μαθήσομαι.'

What knowlege had the Druids of the divinities of Olympus? and yet they are frequently recalled to our mind by similar expressions. No less does this line

‘Καὶ Φῦλα μακάρων, πνεύματ' ὀβριώτατα,'

give us an idea of the angels in Scripture instead of the 'airy tribes' (the original words) that 'dwelt on majestic Snowdon.' We shall quote no farther instances of a fault which probably cannot be easily avoided by those who write in the dead languages. They derive their phrases from those which memory supplies them with; they dare not clothe their ideas in any words, or combination of words which they cannot recollect in some author of acknowledged reputation, lest they should express themselves in a barbarous and unclassical manner. Of course, imagination is checked, and even the choice of diction prohibited. This undoubtedly extenuates many faults, but militates strongly against the attempt itself. We would not be understood, from the defects we have pointed out, to mean a general censure. It is evidently the work of a scholar and man of abilities; the style is, in general, spirited and correct; we might quote many passages which strike us in that light; but few, excepting those who are deeply enamoured of the
Grecian

Grecian Muse, would thank us for such a selection ; as, after all that can be said in favour of this performance, we trace in it no sentiment more happily expressed than in the original ; we are sorry therefore to see so much labour and ingenuity employed to so little purpose.—We consider the learned languages as the means, not the end ; as necessary assistants towards obtaining knowlege, but not as the absolute acquisition of it : those who in the smallest degree contribute to the refinement of their native tongue, are, in our opinion, entitled to higher approbation than the profoundest scholar, if he confines himself to the communication of another's thoughts in a language understood by few, and by fewer relished. Pedants and Pædagogues will pronounce our opinion heterodox and damnable ; and it may be urged in favour of the present undertaking, that by means of it the learned in other parts of Europe, who are ignorant of our language, will become acquainted with a performance that does honour to it : and that so chaste and noble a model of the Grecian drama, the more it is known, the more it must be applauded. If this was Mr. Glasse's idea, we admire his zeal more than his prudence. The beauties of *Caractacus*, as we observed before, are of such a complection as not easily to have justice done them in a dead language. To mention no other obstacle, we apprehend the peculiar felicity of expression in that performance, and nice arrangement of words, would mock the labour of the most ingenious translator. To us the attempt appears no otherwise than lighting a taper to make the radiance of the sun more manifest.—Had an original drama of equal merit been presented to us, we should have abated the severity of criticism ; have considered it rather as a curiosity in the literary world ; as a performance that in many places emulated the pathos of *Sophocles*, and sublimity of *Eschylus*. The nature of the undertaking, not the execution, is what we chiefly disapprove. Of whatever degree of merit it stands possessed, that is totally eclipsed by the original : it is reflected light, and shines with diminished splendour.—People of taste, who are conversant with Mr. Mason's poem, can feel no satisfaction in perusing the translation ; and those who are not, can never form from it a just idea of its superior excellencies.

Abelard to Eloisa. An Epistle. To which are prefixed Sonnets, with a Rhapsody, &c. By Tho. Warwick, LL.B. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dilly.

THE author introduces a second advertisement, prefixed to his sonnets, (and as to the first it might just as well have been omitted) with the following very questionable positions.

'The example of Petrarch, and the authority of Boileau, might of themselves serve to give a *decided superiority* to the sonnet over all the smaller kinds of poetry; in extent of subject equally comprehensive with the ode, and in its design more uniform and simple; more varied in the arrangement of its numbers than the elegy, but equally flowing and pathetic.'

We cannot pay implicit obedience to the example or authority of any individual in matters of taste, not even to Petrarch and Boileau, though the one had a more 'decided superiority,' over all other writers as a poet, and the other as a critic, than the generality of the world are willing to allow. If in the next sentence the author means to imply, that sonnets may be composed on as great a variety of subjects as odes, we entirely assent to his opinion; and admit, that uniformity and simplicity of design may be equally preserved or violated in either. But if he intends to signify, that as much extent of subject-matter may be comprehended in his favourite species of composition, this cannot be granted, on account of the established limitation of lines which is requisite to constitute a sonnet. Neither can we perceive the least advantage that it possesses over the elegy; for, though not modulated by an alternate change of rhyme, its stated returns and arrangement of numbers is equally settled. Besides, however scanty the poet's sentiments on his subject may be, they must be wire-drawn and dilated into fourteen lines: or, however copious and luxuriant, compressed into the same number. A latitude almost unbounded is allowed to odes and elegies; they may be prolonged or contracted at the author's pleasure; but the sonnet must undergo the fate of Procrustes' victims, and be tortured into a determined form.

Our author proceeds to observe, 'possessed of such advantages, what a loss must English poetry sustain in being declared incapable of, or at least improper for that species of composition? yet such is apparently the wish and opinion of a late celebrated critic, by the conclusion of his short remarks on the sonnets of Milton.' As to the loss we should sustain by their annihilation, we have nothing to say, but that we think it might be endured with patience and resignation: but if writers of ability choose to adopt that mode of composition, we have not the least inclination of promulging a general anathema against it, even though it was warranted by the sanction of Dr. Johnson. The quotation however given us from that gentleman's life of Milton, does not seem to indicate his having the least desire of abolishing that species of poetry: he seems merely to consider it as ungenial to the English idiom, and expresses not the *wishes*, but the *feelings* of

of his mind. Had he only consulted the former, many people may probably suppose that the ode and elegy would have been more obnoxious to his critical fulminations than the inoffensive sonnet. Our opinions coincide so much with the doctor's, and differ so far from our author's, that, instead of acknowledging its superiority, we are convinced, and have assigned some reasons for our sentiments, that it labours under more disadvantages than the other 'smaller kinds of poetry.' We do not think that the subject deserves much critical investigation, and were led into what we have said about it, more from the peremptory mode in which the author pronounces its excellence, than from considering it as of any real importance. Good poetry in any form, like a good horse of any colour, is entitled to praise; and praise cannot with justice be withheld from most of the sonnets in the present collection. The first opens in the following manner.

'To climb at early dawn the mountain's side,
Ere devious herds have brush'd the dews away,
Be mine; at noon amid yon elms to stray,
Whose artless tufts the cooling torrent hide:
Mine, from the purple heath's horizon wide
To trace the splendours of *reclining* day,
Until the moon my homeward path to guide,
Distain the forest edge with silver grey.'—

The scenery is certainly extremely beautiful and picturesque; and the words marked in Italics, though bold, in our opinion, allowable. The concluding lines are much inferior. The eighth sonnet, written by the author on re-visiting Oxford, where we suppose he was educated, is natural and elegant; and possibly inferior to none in the collection.

'Again I trace from Cherwell's willowy tide
Yon Gothic towers with peaceful trophies hung,
Whose circling groves the varied scene divide,
Where many a sage hath mus'd, and poet sung;
While recent memory prompts from every side
The wonted accents of her infant tongue,
Shall silence here the Muse's transport hide,
Where first her vocal harp she fondly strung!
Scenes of my youth! when fancy's quickening power
Endear'd the lonely walk, the social hour,
O! could your placid influence now remove
The restless inmates of a feeling frame;
The tempter Luxury, the tyrant Love,
And direr far the sacred thirst of fame!'

We find two defective passages in this composition, which might be easily altered. In the first line to *trace*, when applied to 'towers,' which the context evidently points out merely as objects of view, gives an incongruous idea, which

would be restored to propriety by substituting the word mark, or view, in its place. The last line is likewise reprehensible. The opposition of 'dire' and 'sacred' applied to the same object is improper, which the epithet boundless, quenchless, or some other of a similar signification, inserted instead of the latter, would possibly correct.

The Rhapsody, which contains an encomium on Shakspeare, affords nothing striking or new, unless the passage may be considered in that light, where he mentions

' ——— the self-plum'd tribe of modern Gaul,
Whose powder'd critics join at Fashion's call
To mock with feeble light thy noon-tide rays.'

Though we easily guess at the author's meaning, the comparison itself is highly improper. The sun, whose superior splendour eclipses all lesser lights, may figuratively be said to 'mock' them; but the reverse can never be admitted.

The principal performance, and which the author professes to have most laboured, is the epistle of Abelard to Eloisa; and he assigns some reasons, in a third advertisement, as an apology for his presumption 'in entering on a career in which every other candidate has failed.' Certain it is, that Pope's celebrated epistle has never been equalled by any one who has chosen to display his abilities on the same subject; and this gentleman stands in the same predicament with his predecessors. We mean not to intimate that the poem is destitute of merit. The author, considered as an imitator, not a rival, appears in a respectable light.

*Elements of Jurisprudence treated of in the Preliminary Part
of a Course of Lectures on the Laws of England. 4to. 5s.
T. Payne and Son.*

IT is a difficult office to succeed sir William Blackstone, and no easy task to treat of those subjects which have been adorned by his eloquence. We do not mean to insinuate that the learned judge was free from errors, or that he was not at some times hasty, and at others superficial; but it is not necessary, at present, to expatiate on his faults, which are more than ballanced by his excellencies. The difficulty of following him arises from another source; for the most ostentatious display of his errors would fill a number of pages comparatively small; and to supply his defects would not add considerably to the bulk. The laws of England, which are the subject both of the predecessor and his followers, cannot afford many new prospects: to connect and detail them, is a work of little variety, and the explanations cannot often be different, as they must at last depend on the decision of the

different courts. In this situation, where it is impossible to stand alone and unconnected, it is no disgrace to copy; and where the author cannot be convicted of servile plagiarism, he may be allowed to avail himself of others labours. But if there be no employment for the imagination; if there be no new system to be created, or arguments to be invented for its support; if facts remain unchanged, and ingenuity or invention be unable to give them a different and opposite colour; it does not follow that no advantage can result from re-tracing the ground which has been already trodden. New language will adorn the subject; new illustrations familiarize; and new arguments enforce it. To present the same matter, in a different shape, may better fit it for some understandings; and to compare the opinions of different men, may enlighten others. Our author, the present Vinerian professor, who has felt all the difficulty of his situation, meets it with propriety. The elementary part, which must be the same with some portions of *Mr. William Blackstone's Commentaries*, are necessarily retained. In other parts, he professes to treat with less minuteness, those subjects which have been a great object of his predecessor's attention, and to enlarge on those which he has more slightly mentioned; so that this work is varied in its arrangement, and while it forms an entire view of the subject, is in a great degree supplemental to the other. The slight summary which *Mr. Woodeson* has given of his course, seems to show, that he has executed his plan with propriety and judgment, and it will want few arguments to confirm the justness of the design.

In the preliminary part, there is more room for novelty, and a more extensive scope for criticism; but we wish in a great measure to avoid it. We now see only a portion of a larger work; and the part which appears improper and ungraceful, when detached from a building, may be peculiarly ornamental in it. The titles of these 'preliminary discourses' we shall here subjoin.

' Preliminary Discourses.

Of the Laws of Nature. I.—Of civil, positive, or instituted Law. II.—Of the several Species of Magistracy. III.—Of the Law of Nations. IV.—Of the Laws of England, in a general View, and with respect to the various Sources from which they have been derived. V.—Of the Study and Profession of the Laws of England, with a Delineation of the Plan pursued in the following Lectures. VI.

I. General Division.—Of the Laws as referred to Persons.

Of the Establishment of the Supreme Legislature. VII. VIII.
—Of the Supreme Executive Magistrate. IX.

Of

Of Judicial Magistracy. { whose Proceedings conform to the general Laws. X. not proceeding by the general Laws. XI. Of the Origin of the Court of Chancery, and of Courts of Equity in general. XII. XIII.—Of the Civil Jurisdiction of the Lords of Parliament. XIV. Of inferior Magistrates. XV.—Of the Clergy; and of the Laws which establish and maintain the National Religion. XVI. XVII.—Of certain legal Distinctions among the Subjects of the State. XVIII.—Of Persons as considered in private and domestic Relations. XIX.—Of Corporations. XX.

II. General Division.—Of the Laws as referred to Things, or Property.

Of Real Estates. { Of Estates in respect to the Quantity of Interest. XXI.—Of the Tenure of Estates. XXII.—Of incorporeal Hereditaments. XXIII.—Of the joint and contemporary Ownership of Estates. XXIV.—Of Estates upon Condition. XXV. Of Estates in Possession and Expectancy, as Remainders vested and contingent, and executory Devises. XXVI. XXVII. XXVIII.—Of the Title to Estates, by Deed, by Matter of Record, and by Devise. XXIX. XXX. XXXI. XXXII. Of various means of acquiring Personal Property. XXXIII.—Of Captures at Sea. XXXIV.—Of Title to Personal Property by Testament, and by Succession in case of Intestacy. XXXV.

III. General Division.—Of Actions.

I. Of Criminal Prosecutions. { Of Punishments in general; and the more general Classes of temporal Offences. XXXVI. Of Offences against the established Religion. XXXVII.—Of the ordinary Modes of instituting criminal Prosecutions. XXXVIII.—Of Trials by the Peers of the Realm; and of parliamentary Impeachments. XXXIX. XL.—Of Bills of Attainder, and Bills of Pains and Penalties. XLI. Of real and mixed Actions. XLII. XLXIII.—Of pleading in personal Actions. XLIV.—Of certain Kinds of personal Actions. XLV.—Of Actions of Assumpsit. XLVI. XLVII.—Of special Actions upon the Case. XLVIII. XLIX.—Of Actions of Replevin. L.—Of Actions of Trespass. LI.—Of Evidence. LII. LIII.—Of Incidents previous to, at, and after, Trials by Jury. LIV.

II. Of Private Civil Actions.

III. Of

- III. Of Suits in Courts of Equity. { Of the practical Proceedings in Courts of Equity. LV.—Of the granting of Injunctions. LVI. Of the Performance or rescinding of Agreements. LVII. LVIII.—Of testamentary Causes. LIX. LX. }

We cannot give these Lectures a more advantageous character, than to remark, that they display a considerable knowledge of the subject, and are delivered in language equally neat and perspicuous, which neither sinks into familiarity, nor is decked with foreign and unsuitable ornaments. We do not mean to diminish the merit of this volume, when we observe, that there are few pretensions to novelty in it; that we are not often drawn aside by disquisitions, recommended only by their ingenuity; dazzled by the glare of fancy and refinement; or by the apparent depth of a paradox. We should have censured either of these attempts, as highly erroneous; and entertain a higher respect for the author, who has chosen to build his fame on a better foundation. Reputation is, indeed, by these methods, cheaply obtained; but its duration is in proportion to the ease of the acquisition.

Essay on Electricity. To which is added an Essay on Magnetism, By George Adams, Mathematical Instrument Maker to his Majesty. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Sold by the Author.

AS electricity is almost a collection of facts, our author, who professes only to describe the electrical apparatus, and to arrange the various experiments, must have collected the principal circumstances, and given a comprehensive view of the science. He has, we think, performed his task with clearness and precision; the experiments are those which at the same time illustrate the few principles which electricity yet admits, and are amusing in the process, or in the event. There are few facts which are not mentioned in this little tract; and there is consequently less reason to regret the want of uncertain abstract speculations, which are neither valuable for their entertainment or their instruction. After we have given this general account of the work, it will be obvious that many of its different parts have passed already under our notice, and received their portion of censure or applause. There are some apparently instructive, which indeed we could not have received; and others, which are new: but these require the assistance of plates. It is therefore from the former class that we must select the few specimens which we are able to present of the execution. It is sufficient to observe that the plates are faithful, and sufficiently elegant; but there are some inaccuracies in the references, and in the letters of the

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engravings themselves, which will perplex the beginner, if not previously corrected.

We have not yet received any account of the electricity of the atmosphere so satisfactory as that extracted from the Berlin Transactions; we shall therefore insert a few of the observations of Mr. Achard, from this volume.

* During the month of July, 1778, Mr. Achard observed daily the electricity of the atmosphere in the morning, at noon, and in the evening, with a pair of small pith balls, which were placed above the roof of the house, above 40 feet high, and sufficiently distant from buildings, trees, &c. During the whole time there were only 10 days which gave no signs of electricity: 17 days, including the foregoing 10, in which he could observe no electricity in the morning, though it became very sensible at noon, and was very much increased towards the setting of the sun. Every other day he found the air electrical during the whole day, but always strongest a little before sun-set, a short time after which it began again to diminish.

* If in serene weather the sky became suddenly cloudy, the electrometer indicated continual changes in the electricity of the atmosphere; sometimes increasing, then disappearing, then re-appearing, in which case it had generally changed from positive to negative, or vice versa. In windy weather he found it difficult to observe with the electrometer, on account of the continual motion of the balls. It seemed to vary considerably when the air was heavy, but not windy. When the weather was very calm and the sky without clouds, the electrometer did not alter in the least, except towards sun-set, when it increased in a small degree.

* It is remarkable, that in those days in which he observed no electricity in the air, there was no dew at night; while on the other nights, it fell in greater or less quantities. He does not think those observations are sufficient to determine that the dew is occasioned by electricity; but it may, he thinks, be fairly inferred, that the elevation and fall of the dew is obstructed or promoted by the electricity of the air. It is easy to point out in what manner electricity may produce the effect. Let us suppose the air to be either positively or negatively electrified, but the surface of the globe where we are, not to be so; the aqueous and volatile parts of the vegetables exhaled by the rays of the sun, and suspended in the air, will become electric by communication. The air cooling by the absence of the solar heat, will not, after the setting of the sun, retain the aqueous particles with the same force; and these being attracted by the non-electric bodies which are on the surface of the earth, their superficies will be covered with dew. Again, let us suppose that the surface of the earth is electrical, but that the air is not electrical, and the effect will be similar to the preceding case. If the air and the earth are both electrified, but with contrary powers, the attraction will be stronger and the dew

dew more abundant, but no dew will fall if they are both possessed of the same power, and in the same degree. It is known that the dew does not fall with the same facility upon all bodies, and that electric bodies are those on which it falls with the greatest abundance. This fact admits of an easy explanation, if we suppose electricity to be the cause of the dew; for the electric bodies do not readily receive electricity from the medium which surrounds them; there is, therefore, always a greater difference between the electricity of the air and that of the electrics which are placed in it, than between the electricity of the air and the conducting bodies which it envelopes. Now it is in the ratio of this difference that the power of electric attraction acts, and consequently these bodies ought to be covered more abundantly with dew.

As electricity is often, if not always, the cause of dew, no one will doubt the necessity of attending to it in the botanical meteorology, as every one is acquainted with the influence of dew on the growth of vegetables.

In the *Phil. Trans.* for 1773, are observations on the electricity of fogs, which prove that they are generally electrical. Mr. Achard has made several observations, the results of which correspond entirely with those, for he constantly found that the air was more or less electrified by a fog. Twice he observed, that in the space of a few minutes the fog ceased altogether, and fell in form of a fine rain; and though it was very thick, disappeared in about seven minutes. It is also very probable that rain is occasioned by electricity; and of this we shall be convinced, if we consider the attractions and repulsions that the terrestrial or atmospheric electricity must occasion, as well between the surface of the globe and the vapours contained in the air, as between the particles of vapour which always necessarily tend to disperse, or unite the aqueous particles which swim in the atmosphere, and to bring them nearer, or carry them farther from, the earth.

We wish also to transcribe the observations of the same author on the analogy between electricity and heat; but they are too long, and we must also allow that they are in some degree incomplete. The effects of electrical fire on metals and on air, may be added in support of Mr. Achard's position; and it is probable that, from the simple luminous effect of phosphoric bodies, to the fusion of metals by lightning, the whole may be resolved into different modes of decomposition, or more properly of the escape of phlogiston. The progress of science is better assisted by extending the influence of known principles, than inventing new ones; for the farther we advance, the more clearly we perceive, that the operations of nature are equally simple and extensive. We see but one link of the chain; yet we see that it extends from earth to heaven.

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Though its purposes are innumerable, and its influence boundless, the means by which they are executed as much excite our admiration when known, as they did our astonishment while we remained ignorant of them.

Mr. Adams's observations on medical electricity deserve more attention, as they are professedly the abstract of a system, 'formed on the experiments of the last four years.' We shall therefore insert them.

'In this system, it is ranked as an antispasmodic, is considered as the most powerful external application to diseases, and, from the various manners in which it is used, serves the purposes of a sedative, a stimulant, and a deobitruent. In medicine, it becomes then applicable to palsies, rheumatisms, intermittents, to spasm, obstruction, and inflammation. In surgery it has considerable scope for action; where contractions and sprains, tumors, particularly of the glandular sort, wasting of the muscles, and other incidents, form a catalogue of visible diseases, as distressing to the sight of others as to the patients themselves. The gout, and the scrophula, or king's evil, two diseases which have tormented mankind, and been the disgrace of medicine to the present time, are ranked among those to which this remedy is applicable; and in the commencement of the complaints, I am informed, has been wonderfully successful. To remove ill-placed fits of the gout, it should seem to be a more rational application than any medicine, for it applies directly to the seat of the disease, with a power and rapidity unknown in physic, and perfectly manageable at discretion; and, as it is a remedy which applies to the understanding as well as to the feelings, I should think it better worth the attention and contemplation of men of liberal education, than the compounding a medicine, in which they place little faith, or applying a plaister, in which they have none at all.'

After much trial of this remedy, we cannot be so sanguine in our recommendations. We are at least certain that it is not a specific, as our author supposes, in the complaints for which it was recommended by Mr. Birch. Electricity, though conducted with the greatest attention, has more frequently failed than succeeded in similar cases. But we shall reserve our remarks on this subject, because we have some reason to expect the system at large, which we shall examine with candour and impartiality.

The Essay on Magnetism is concise, clear, and instructive. We should have extracted a part of it, but that we wish to avoid repeating what is already known; and the few novelties are intimately mixed with the observations of others. The whole is however advantageously related, and deserves our commendations.

Out-

Outlines of the Theory and Practice of Midwifery. By Alexander Hamilton, M.D. F.R.S. Edin. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Robinson.

THOUGH we do not in general approve of those literary impositions, where a second edition is published with a new title, yet in some cases it is not only defensible, but even commendable. The present work was published in 1775; it was then less accurate than we expected to find it, and less full than even a syllabus probably should have been. In the interval our author, whose reputation and importance seem by his titles to have increased, has not been inattentive to his first offspring, but has revised and amended it in so many places, that it is really become, as he observes, a new work; and 'as it is different in matter' it ought 'to differ in form.' We readily admit his apology; and think, both in justice to himself and the world, who, as well as ourselves, might have overlooked it, that he has acted with propriety and prudence. We have therefore again perused it, as a new treatise; for though we at first attempted to mark the changes and amendments, they soon grew too numerous for our attention. In its present state, we think it an impartial and judicious account of midwifery, with its more recent improvements. Its principles are more scientific than those of the former work, and its different parts connected with more skill. The pathology is comprehensive and accurate; the practice clear and enlightened. It is not easy to produce a proper specimen from a performance of this kind; but we have inserted the following extract, because it affords, in our opinion, important information, together with a very ingenious explanation.

'In the longitudinal contraction of the uterus, when an arm presents, and the shoulder is advanced in the passage, so that the feet cannot easily be come at, Dr. Denman advises "to pull the body lower down by the arm, and the difficulty will be lessened or removed." "There is, happily, (he adds), no necessity of turning the child in these circumstances; for it will be born by the effect of the powers of nature only. In such cases the child does not come double, but the breech is the first part delivered, and the head the last, the body turning upon its own axis."

'He adopts this opinion from four cases which occurred in his own practice, and several similar histories related by others; in all which, however, the child was dead. He therefore infers, "That, in cases in which children present with the arm, women would not necessarily die undelivered, though they were not assisted by art."

'He concludes his observations with this important remark.

“The benefit we are to derive in practice from the knowledge of this fact is, that the custom of turning and delivering by the feet, in presentations of the arm, will remain necessary and proper in all cases in which the operation can be performed with safety to the mother, and give a chance of preserving the life of the child; but, when the child is dead, and when we have no other view, but merely to extract the child, to remove the danger thence arising to the mother, it is of great importance to know, that the child may be turned spontaneously by the action of the uterus.”

“Dr. Denman’s remark is new to me. In a case where the powers of nature have been usually considered as desperate, it is new, perhaps, only because the practitioner has thought it useless to wait for them. But though curious, as it shews what nature in her struggles can perform; and though surprising, as it apparently contradicts the laws of motion; it seems to me unnecessary, as in the numerous arm-presentations which I have attended, the child has for the most part been preserved, and the woman has seldom suffered any material injury from the delivery. I have therefore continued to practise the method which I have just recommended; and, in the most intricate presentations, have generally succeeded in making the delivery, by fixing a fillet on the arm, and altering the position in the manner mentioned, when every other method had failed. I have never yet known a case to occur where the pelvis was tolerably proportioned, in which I could not either obtain access to the feet to deliver by turning, or reduce the arm and bring down the head; and have, in several cases, successfully turned where the pelvis was considerably distorted.

“It may be necessary, however, to state the principles of this operation, that we may be aware how far to trust the unassisted efforts of the constitution.

“The longitudinal contraction of the uterus, is one of those blind and indiscriminate attempts which nature sometimes makes to free herself from a burden. When her powers are exhausted, these efforts are diminished, and the uterus is relaxed. In these circumstances, then, if we can fix the arm, the body will of itself turn as on an axis; and the heavier part, or the breech, will come downward and be delivered: the arm is fixed by drawing down the shoulder; but it will be obvious, that the natural falling down of the breech will immediately draw it back again; and it is in this way that the child does not ultimately come down double. This operation can be easily imitated on machinery, if the aperture is conical to fix that part which represents the arm; and it is in
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this way clear, that the contradiction to the laws of motion is apparent only.

'In the manner we have just stated, this mode of delivery may seem to be preferable; but various circumstances diminish its advantages. Dr. Denman has very properly limited it to the delivery of a dead child, and we may add a well-proportioned pelvis: but, even there, we exhaust the powers of nature, without an adequate advantage; especially if we reflect, that, in this exhausted state, an inconsiderable increase of the usual discharges may prove fatal.'

In the Appendix, Dr. Hamilton takes notice of Dr. Osburne. He had before corrected some of the mistakes which he had inadvertently been guilty of, from misinformation; and now endeavours to defend his directions for fixing the crochet, and his recommendation of the Cæsarean section. The method which he mentioned was that, he says, of Dr. Smellie and Dr. Young, while the very shape of the instrument shows that it was originally intended to be fixed chiefly on the outside of the child's head. Our author observes, that he has frequently recommended the basis, for the place on which the instrument should be fastened, though he still thinks his former directions sometimes proper. Indeed we lately witnessed a case where it was impossible to fix it any where else. The Cæsarean section, he says, was always, in his opinion, a last and desperate resource: though delivery is sometimes practicable in a very narrow pelvis, yet the solidity of the child's head will not always permit it to pass in the circumstances mentioned by Dr. Osburne. In that case, though desperate, it is the only measure, and he thinks it preferable to being a melancholy spectator of death, without an effort to prevent it. In the work itself, Dr. Hamilton expresses much less confidence in the authors formerly quoted, who were said to have performed this operation. With respect to the division of the symphysis, he agrees very nearly with Dr. Osburne.

On the whole, we think this performance, though not free from trifling errors, a respectable one; and its utility is increased by references, for the explanations, to the accurate and elegant plates of Dr. Hunter. These works will consequently reflect a mutual light on each other.

Practical Observations on the more obstinate and inveterate Venereal Complaints. By J. Swediaur, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THE uncommon candour and good sense displayed in this work will strongly recommend it to every practitioner; and we think that there are few who will not derive some instruction

struction from it. The language is plain and forcible ; sometimes incorrect, but always perspicuous. The nature of the subject will not permit us to enlarge on it so much as its real merit would otherwise have allowed ; we shall therefore only observe, that if the author sometimes pursues the views of his predecessors, instead of censuring the want of novelty, we should value his observations, in confirmation of the established practice, as those of a candid and intelligent physician. If the simplicity of his plans sometimes surprise, we should attend to his own request, and give them a fair trial. It will be obvious, from the judgment of his remarks on what was before known, that we ought to place some confidence on what he recommends.

Dr. Swedia'r has added a very extensive synopsis of the different preparations of mercury, in which he informs us of the nature of some remedies which have been hitherto concealed. The observations which are added to them are judicious and useful. He speaks with respect of the pulvis mercurii cinereus, in the last edition of the Edinburgh Pharmacopeia, as the mildest of the saline mercurial preparations ; and seems to think that the reputation of the corrosive sublimate arises rather from the facility with which it at first relieves troublesome symptoms, than its efficacy in completing the cure. The terre feuilletée mercurielle of Mons. Pressavin, is the mercury combined with cream of tartar ; and Keyser's pills consist of the same metal with the acetous acid. We take this opportunity of remarking, that the method of uniting mercury with the vegetable acids, which has been much boasted of, and which we daily expect to see recommended with some parade, is by no means new or difficult. It was long ago known that mercury, deprived of its phlogiston, had a very different affinity from what it possessed when combined with this principle ; and this peculiarity was applied to the formation of milder mercurial salts many years since. The hydrargyrum acetosum is composed of a solution of mercury in the nitrous acid, combined with the sal diureticus ; from which, by means of the double elective attraction, two new compounds are produced. The importance of calomel, and the difficulty of procuring it finely powdered, renders the following process of very great consequence ; we have therefore little doubt but that it will be acceptable. It is taken from the Stockholm Transactions, and invented by Mr. Scheele.

‘ Half a pound of quicksilver, and the same quantity of pure aqua fortis, and to be put into a small vessel with a long neck, the mouth of which is to be covered with paper. The vessel

vessel is then to be placed in a warm sand-bath; and after a few hours, when the acid affords no signs of its acting any longer on the quicksilver, the fire is to be increased to such a degree that the solution may nearly boil. This heat is to be continued for three or four hours, taking care to move the vessel from time to time, and at last the solution is to be suffered to boil gently for about a quarter of an hour. In the mean while we are to dissolve four ounces and a half of fine common salt in six or eight pints of water. This solution is to be poured boiling into a glass vessel, in which the abovementioned solution of quicksilver is to be mixed with it, gradually, and in a boiling state also, taking care to keep the mixture in constant motion. When the precipitate is settled, the clear liquor is to be drained from it, after which it is to be repeatedly washed with hot water till it ceases to impart any taste to the water. The precipitate obtained by this method is to be filtered, and afterwards dried by a gentle heat.

It might be supposed, that when the nitrous acid ceases to effervesce with the mercury, it is saturated with it: but this is far from being the case; the acid, when the heat is increased, being still able to dissolve a considerable quantity of it; with this difference, however, that the quicksilver at the beginning of the process is calcined by the acid, but afterwards is dissolved by it in a metallic form. In proof of this we may observe, that not only more elastic vapour arises, but also that by adding either fixed or volatile caustic alkali we obtain a black precipitate; whereas, when the solution contains only calcined quicksilver, the precipitate becomes yellow by such an addition. If this black precipitate is gently distilled, it rises in the form of quicksilver, leaving a yellow powder, which is in fact that part of the mercury that in the beginning of the operation was calcined by the nitrous acid.

The boiling of the solution for about a quarter of an hour is necessary, in order to keep the hydrargyrum nitratum in a dissolved state, it being much disposed to crystallize. In general, some of the mercury remains undissolved; but it is always better to take too much than too little of it, because the more metallic substance the solution contains, the more mercurius dulcis will be obtained.

It is necessary to pour the mercurial solution into the solution of salt by a little at a time, and cautiously, so that no part of the undissolved quicksilver may pass along with it. Two ounces of common salt are sufficient to precipitate all the mercury; but then it may easily happen that some superfluous mercurius corrosivus attaches itself to this precipitate, which the water alone is incapable of separating completely. This is undoubtedly the reason why mercurius præcipitatus albus is always corrosive. I have found that common salt possesses the same quality as sal ammoniac, viz. that of dissolving a great quantity of mercurius corrosivus. I therefore employ four

ounces and a half of common salt in order to get the mercurius corrosivus entirely separated.'

The remainder of the extract from Mr. Scheele, consists only of proofs that this substance is really calomel, and the rationale of the process. We have abridged it, since it was too long for our Journal.

As we have already given our opinion in general of the work, and produced some specimens of the industry of the author, we shall now leave him to enjoy the reputation which he seems to have deserved. Yet we ought to add, that he thinks the disease not the production of America; and observes that this opinion will be rendered more probable, from 'the light thrown on it by Dr. Hensler, from old authentic manuscripts discovered by him.'

Essays on the Effects produced by various Processes on Atmospheric Air; with a particular View to an Investigation of the Constitution of the Acids. By M. Lavoisier, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, &c. Translated from the French, by Thomas Henry, F.R.S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

WE wish rather to announce this publication, than to give any decided opinion on it, since it tends to produce a very considerable revolution in our opinions relative to the constitution of some chemical elements. Much injury has been done to this branch of chemistry by hasty opinions and extravagant, or injudicious commendations. Principles, which have an extensive influence, should therefore be weighed with caution and deliberation; for, if the errors are widely disseminated, the branches acquire an independent existence, and still flourish, though the original trunk be destroyed. The reputation of our author prevents us from suspecting any wilful misrepresentations; and the experiments appear to us to be planned with judgment, and conducted with address. Our philosophical readers do not want to be informed of Dr. Priestley's opinions on these subjects; we shall not therefore extend our article, by recapitulating where they differ from those of Mr. Lavoisier, but give a concise and comprehensive account of the subject of this little volume.

Mr. Lavoisier finds, from his experiments, that the atmospheric air is compounded of a pure and of a mephitic part. The first is only about one-fourth; the rest does not precipitate lime-water, but extinguishes candles, stops respiration, and does not form red vapours with nitrous air. In calcining mercury without addition, in close vessels, this pure part disappears, and

s again recovered by reviving it in the same way ; so that the air, after the experiment, is exactly the same as before. The air, which has been contaminated by the breathing of animals, is deprived of its pure part ; and in its stead, is tainted with about one-sixth of what is called fixed air : when this is absorbed by caustic alkali, the remainder is exactly the same with what appeared after the calcination of mercury. Respiration therefore acts in two ways ; and Mr. Lavoisier thinks it uncertain whether the lungs change the pure part of the air by any vapour which they emit, or absorb it, and again supply the fixed air :—We think the probability much in favour of the former opinion.

Combustion seems chiefly to act on the pure part of the air, and to convert it into fixed air ; for if the latter be absorbed by a caustic alkali and pure air, in the same quantity, added, the whole is reduced to its former state. The air, he thinks, is not sensibly diminished ; but different substances contaminate different proportions of the atmosphere. Candles destroy about one-tenth of the whole quantity, when they are extinguished ; but even of the pure part, they destroy only about two-fifths. Phosphorus will separate four-fifths of it ; and pyrophorus almost the whole. Dephlogisticated air may, in this way, entirely be changed into fixed air ; for, when the candle has been extinguished, if the fixed air is separated by the alkali, the remainder will support the flame : and if the air be quite pure, the experiment may probably be repeated, till the whole is consumed. Our author generally found a very small portion of the mephitic part of the atmosphere in it. This experiment, he thinks, strongly militates against Dr. Priestley's opinion, that flame is extinguished by phlogisticating the air.

Mr. Lavoisier next proceeds to those experiments, which in his opinion explain the nature and constitution of acids. He describes the appearances in burning Kunckel's phosphorus, and finds that the air is diminished nearly in the same ratio in which the acid exceeds the weight of the original phosphorus. It is remarkable that the air is highly mephitic, and is restored to its former state, by adding as much pure air as will compensate for the decrease of bulk. The experiment succeeds nearly in the same way with sulphur ; and the author concludes from hence, that both the vitriolic and phosphoric acids are composed of dephlogisticated air, which forms above half their weight. The rest of the essay contains the properties of the various salts which are formed from the union of the phosphoric acid with different bases.

The next essay is very important. Its object is to prove not 'only that the air, but the most pure part of air, enters into the composition of all the acids without exception; and that on this substance their acidity depends, inasmuch that we may deprive them of that quality, or restore it again, by taking away or giving the portion of air essential to their composition.' Mr. Lavoisier allows that almost every experiment has been suggested by Dr. Priestley, and only contends for the honour of the conclusions. The principal experiment is to calcine mercury by means of the nitrous acid, and to revive it without addition. The metal lost in this trial but a small part of its weight, which arose in the form of a yellow and red sublimate. Our author therefore concludes, that the air procured is entirely from the decomposition of the nitrous acid; consequently that this acid is composed of 190 inches of nitrous air, 12 inches of common air, 224 inches of air better than common air and water. It is well known that neither of these airs are really acid, though we have great reason to suspect, that the nitrous air is virtually, though not formally, of this kind. But, though nitrous and dephlogisticated airs, to which these results may be reduced, seem not to have any resemblance to an acid; yet, when united in a certain proportion, they form a true smoking spirit of nitre. Seven parts and one-third of the former saturate four parts of the latter; yet the original proportion of pure air in the decomposition, was larger than of the nitrous. This difficulty, Mr. Lavoisier professes himself unable to explain. The experiment succeeds also with nitrous and common air; and it will be consequently obvious, if we trust those of our author, that air is not composed of nitrous acid, but that the acid is composed of air.

In the next essay, our author pursues a similar experiment with vitriolic acid and mercury; but does not recompound the acid. He is content with observing, that the air absorbed by burning brimstone, is again decomposed; and that the volatile vitriolic acid differs only from the fixed, by being deprived of a part of its dephlogisticated air.

The next object is, to explain the phenomena observable in burning pyrophorus. This substance, Mr. Lavoisier thinks, is a true liver of sulphur; and as it is formed from bodies containing vitriolic acid, and in its formation suffers dephlogisticated air to escape, so on its burning it returns to its former state, and recovers its air. The dephlogisticated air is fixed in the experiment by the coaly matter, or what we call phlogiston; and the inflammable air is different from that which is obtained from metals. It is always in proportion to the
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the coaly matter, and probably in some way arises from it. Mr. Lavoisier thinks there are three species of inflammable air; but, as his experiments are not complete, we shall not enlarge on the subject.

It was the opinion of the author, in his former essays, and some use is made of it in the reasoning of the present volume, that sulphur was only vitriolic acid deprived of its air; and on the contrary, that in becoming an acid, it had regained the air. There is a remarkable confirmation of this opinion drawn from the martial pyrites. In their natural state they are composed of iron and sulphur; but, after having been exposed to the air, the sulphur is converted into the acid of vitriol. During this effect the air was diminished, and became considerably more mephitic.

In the subsequent essay, Mr. Lavoisier generalizes his facts, and thinks it certain, that the acidifying principle is only pure air, and that the various acids are distinguished by the nature of the bodies from whence they are procured. In the formation of every acid, he endeavours to show that there is an absorption of air; and as he has already considered the mineral acids, his example of the others is the acid of sugar. The method of making it is taken from Bergman's *Memoirs*. Our author thinks that the acid does not arise from a decomposition of the sugar, but from the acidifying principle united to its substance.

The last essay relates to evaporation. Mr. Lavoisier having distinguished between fire in its free state, or in a state of combination, more commonly known to the English philosophers by apparent and latent heat, proceeds to show, that vapours proceed from the matter of fire combined with the rarified fluid. He endeavours to prove by an experiment, which has been often mentioned, that the pressure of the atmosphere represses, instead of assisting, evaporation; and that in every case when that pressure is removed, a more sensible absorption of fire takes place, and vapours are more quickly raised. As this essay is less new, so it is also less interesting; we shall therefore only take notice of his answer to an obvious objection. If vapour depended on the combination of fire with the fluid evaporated, that absorption would appear, and cold would be produced by every formation of aeriform fluids; but, on the contrary, the air which arises from a mixture of an acid with an alkali, is attended with heat. When this objection was examined by experience, it served to strengthen the opinion; for the heat chiefly attended the mixtures in which the caustic alkali was used, and diminished in the exact proportion of the air separated,

We have endeavoured to give an exact and comprehensive account of the more important parts of these Essays ; but, from the motive formerly mentioned, shall add no opinion on the subject. We have indeed formed one, but we wish to mature it by reflection, and to decide it by experiment. The most impartial enquirer will however allow a great share of merit to the present work. The experiments are clear, accurate, and decisive ; they are exquisitely adapted to the subject of the enquiry, executed with considerable attention and dexterity, and related with remarkable candour and perspicuity. The results, though unusual, are not contradictory, and reflect the strongest light on each other. Truth is generally simple, clear, and strong ; error confused and intricate ; yet they sometimes assume each other's garb, and we have had more than one occasion to regret, that a system beautiful and simple, adorned with all the charms of novelty and eloquence, has wanted this only intrinsic and real excellence.

The Herald of Literature : or, A Review of the most considerable Publications that will be made in the Course of the ensuing Winter ; with Extracts. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

WE are sorry to perceive some little portion of rancour mixed with our author's mirth. His ironical address to the Monthly and Critical Reviewers, though humorous, is ill-natured ; and though apparently designed to raise a smile, is calculated to fix a dagger.—The great cause of his complaint is, that the opinion of the public has not always been consonant to their judgment ; and that at least twenty instances of this disagreement had occurred in about twenty years. If he has thus unawares pronounced a panegyric, when he meant to convey a censure, we are not indebted to his intention ; and it may be added that even, in this enormous list of crimes, it is not certain where the guilt of mistaken judgment or false taste may lie. But we ought to remember how often our brother may offend against us, and be forgiven.

As we have now discussed this very important question, we shall consider the present lively anticipation of the works and the opinions of the ensuing season. We really think that it possesses some merit. The extracts of the supposed works are written nearly in the style of the authors ; and the criticisms are often so acute, that we have no scruple in observing, that if our author be not already a Reviewer, he deserves the office. We shall select the character of Mr. Gibbon, as a specimen of his critical judgment,

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‘As the whole of this excellent work is now before us, it may not be impertinent, before we finally take our leave of it, to attempt an idea of its celebrated author. We are happy in this place to declare our opinion, that no author ever better obeyed the precept of Horace and Boileau, in choosing a subject nicely correspondent to the talents he possessed. The character of this writer, patient yet elegant, accurate in enquiry, acute in reflexion, was peculiarly calculated to trace the slow and imperceptible decline of empire, and to throw light upon a period darkened by the barbarism of its heroes, and the confused and narrow genius of its authors. In a word, we need not fear to class the performance with those that shall do lasting, perhaps immortal, honour to the country by which they have been produced.

‘But like many other works of this elevated description, the time shall certainly come, when the history before us shall no longer be found, but in the libraries of the learned, and the cabinets of the curious. At present it is equally sought by old and young, the learned and unlearned, the macaroni, the peer, and the fine lady, as well as the student and scholar. But this is to be ascribed to the rage of fashion. The performance is not naturally calculated for general acceptance. It is, by the very tenor of the subject, interspersed with a thousand minute and elaborate investigations, which, in spite of perspicuous method, and classical allusion, will deter the idle, and affright the gay.

‘Nor can we avoid ascribing the undistinguishing and extravagant applause, that has been bestowed upon the style, to the same source of fashion, the rank, the fortune, the connexions of the writer. It is indeed loaded with epithets, and crowded with allusions. But though the style be often raised, the thoughts are always calm, equal, and rigidly classic. The language is full of art, but perfectly exempt from fire. Learning, penetration, accuracy, polish; any thing is rather the characteristic of the historian, than the flow of eloquence, and the flame of genius. Far therefore from classing him in this respect with such writers, as the immortal Hume, who have perhaps carried the English language to the highest perfection it is capable of reaching, we are inclined to rank him below Dr. Johnson, though we are by no means insensible to the splendid faults of that admirable writer.’

We think him less just in his opinion of Mr. Hayley, and not so happy in the imitations of his poetry, as of the prose of either Gibbon or Robertson. The speech of Mr. Burke, which we shall select chiefly on account of the conciseness of the supposed extract, will probably be generally pleasing.

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‘ I know that it has been given out, that by the ability and industry of their predecessors we found peace and order established to our hands; and that the present ministers had nothing to inherit, but emolument and indolence, *otium cum dignitate*. Sir, I will inform you what kind of peace and leisure the late ministers had provided. They were indeed assiduous in their devotion; they erected a temple to the goddess of peace. But it was so hasty and incorrect a structure, the foundation was so imperfect, the materials so gross and unwrought, and the parts so disjointed, that it would have been much easier to have raised an entire edifice from the ground, than to have reduced the injudicious sketch that was made to any regularity of form. Where you looked for a shrine, you found only a vestibule; instead of the chapel of the goddess, there was a wide and dreary lobby; and neither altar nor treasury were to be found. There was neither greatness of design, nor accuracy of finishing. The walls were full of gaps and flaws, the winds whistled through the spacious halls, and the whole building tottered over our heads.’

The other productions which our Reviewer has anticipated, besides Robertson’s *Continuation of the History of America*, and Gibbon’s *Decline of the Roman Empire*, are, a novel by the author of the *Modern Anecdote*; *Louisa*, a novel, by the author of *Cecilia* and *Evelina*; the *Peasant of Bilidelgerid*, a tale; an *Essay on Novel*, in three Epistles, from Mr. Hayley to Lady Craven; *Inkle and Yarico*, a poem by Dr. Beattie; the *Alchemist*, altered by Mr. Sheridan; *Reflections on the present State of the United States of America*, by Mr. Payne; and a *Speech of Mr. Burke’s*. We should not be surprised, if in one or two instances, the authors should pursue the hint, and add a credit to the prophecies of the Reviewer. We shall certainly not object to his opinions, where we really find them candid and just, because they have already occurred in the *Herald of Literature*.

The Sad Shepherd: or, a Tale of Robin Hood. A Fragment, written by Ben Jonson. With a Continuation, Notes, and an Appendix. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Nichols.

IF this Fragment had been the only relic, by which the character of Jonson were to be appreciated, we should never have accused him of a cold correctness, or a timid caution. It frequently happens that a cultivated judgment or a refined taste are the most destructive enemies of genius, and those glowing expressions which have been dictated by the enthusiasm of poetry; for the critic who aims at reason, disdains to feel, and

and what philosophy cannot explain, will be rejected as visionary or trifling. The opinions of Jonson, recorded by his friend Drummond of Hawthornden, show him to have been an acute critic, and a difficult judge; so that it is not improbable that his own works were examined with severity, and corrected with an accuracy similar to that which he discovered in examining the works of others. The present unfinished poem escaped the inquisition to which his other labours were subjected, and it consequently contains more beauties and more faults than those which had previously passed that ordeal. Yet we are led to wish, that his judgment had been less severe; for in this imperfect pastoral we meet with many 'graces which no art can reach,' and many beauties, which, though not sufficiently perfect to escape the blot of the reviser, we should have resigned with regret. We have styled this poem 'unfinished,' though we are well aware that Mr. Whalley, in his edition of our poet's works, has suggested that the rest of it may have been destroyed by fire, or been neglected, from the unjust reception of Fletcher's *Faithful Shepherdess*; yet a slight attention to the different æras of the poet's life will confute this suspicion. The first eminently successful play of Jonson's, *Every Man in his Humour*, appeared in the year 1598, when he was twenty-four years old. Before this, he had been unfortunate, except in one play, which by accident was seen and patronized by Shakspeare. We may therefore allow three years at least for the unsuccessful plays, and that which succeeded; so that he probably began to write about 1595, at the age of twenty-one. He mentions, in the prologue to the *Sad Shepherd*, that he had written forty years, which brings the æra of that play to 1635, and he died in 1637. His last pieces, the *New Inn* and *Tale of a Tub*, were produced soon after the year 1631, or between it and 1634. Age and diseases are therefore a more probable reason for the imperfection of this piece, than either a casual fire, or indignation at the unfavourable treatment of his friend. The tragedy of *Mortimer*, begun nearly at the same time, and still more imperfect, was interrupted apparently from the same causes; for, from Jonson, who was never celebrated for rapidity of composition, in declining years we could scarcely have expected more in an equal period.

The same principle, which has assisted us in explaining the beauties of the present pastoral, may in some degree lessen the difficulty of the continuator, who thinks it surprising that the genius of Jonson should have failed in his latter pieces, and again shone, with undiminished lustre, at the end. He observes, that his first plays are generally the best, and particularly

cularly mentions, in that light, *Every Man in, and out of his Humour*; the *Silent Woman*; *Fox*; *Alchemist*; and the two *Roman Tragedies*. But we have already remarked, that Jonson's first plays were really unsuccessful, and may therefore presume that they were not the best. If his literary career of forty years be examined, the *Fox* was produced at the end of ten years, the *Alchemist* at the end of fifteen, and *Cataline* the year afterwards; so that the period of his great works was near the meridian rather than at the dawn of his dramatic life. If what we have already suggested, that correction may have obscured his fire, be true, we may account for the inequality of his pieces in another way. The fame, which arose from his successful plays, he was eager to preserve, and consequently polished his future ones with more anxious care.

But perhaps we ought to search more deeply for the cause. Jonson appears to the greatest advantage in portraying or supporting a peculiar character. His dialogues are either learned and pedantic, or dull and insipid. He wanted the freedom and ease of real life, and seemed rather to aim at writing well, than naturally. He was more willing to display his own acquisitions in the less important scenes, than to adapt them to the rest of the piece. His best plays, if we except the tragedies, which are confessedly of inferior merit, depend rather on character than dialogue; and it is probable that a similar subject, in any period, would have produced a corresponding effect. What the present pastoral might have been we know not, so that it is equally unfair to bring it in support of, or to destroy any position.

We have premised these remarks, as they are connected with our work, and have some tendency to elucidate the character of the poet. The continuator, struck with the beauties of this literary 'torso,' has endeavoured to supply the deficient limbs, and to give it entire. It might perhaps seem superfluous to examine the part which Jonson has left; but it is so much connected with the continuation, that it becomes almost necessary. We must, however, suppose our readers acquainted with the general plot and conduct of the pastoral.

The description of the *Sad Shepherd* is highly picturesque and beautiful, though it loses much of its effect, by following his appearance in person on the stage. It must be remembered, that he supposes his loved Earine is drowned in the *Trent*, and from his grief has lost his reason:

' Sometimes he sits and thinks all day, then walks,
Then thinks again, and sighs, weeps, laughs, and talks.'

Each

Each word which accidentally coincides with the reverie of the moment is only able to rouse him. Perhaps the following speech, like the madness of Hamlet, may be found to have 'method in it;' but it is a highly-wrought picture of a dis-tempered brain.

Æg. It will be rare, rare, rare!
An exquisite revenge; but peace, no words!
Not for the fairest fleece of all the flock:
If it be known afore, 'tis all worth nothing!
I'll carve it on the trees, and in the turfe,
On every greenfworth, and in every path,
Just to the margin of the cruel Trent;
There will I knock the story in the ground,
In smooth great pebble, and moss fill it round,
Till the whole country read how she was drown'd.
And with the plenty of salt tears there shed,
Quite alter the complexion of the spring.
Or I will get some old, old grandam thither,
Whose rigid foot but dipp'd into the water.
Shall strike that sharp and sudden cold throughout,
As it shall lose all virtue; and those nymphs,
Those treacherous nymphs pull'd in Earine,
Shall stand curl'd up like images of ice,
And never thaw! mark, never! a sharp justice!
Or stay, a better! when the year's at hottest,
And that the dog-star foams, and the stream boils,
And curls, and works, and swells ready to sparkle;
To fling a fellow with a fever in,
To set it all on fire, till it burn
Blue as Scamander, 'fore the walls of Troy,
When Vulcan leap'd in to him to consume him.'

This character is supported with uncommon care, and interests the reader in a great degree; nor are the others without their merit. The gallantry of Robin Hood, the affection of his maid Marian, the malice of Maudlin, and the good-natured liveliness of Puck, while he is permitted to follow his own inclination, are supported with accuracy, and their several speeches equally natural and poetical. The innocent and animated expressions of the shepherds, and their loves, drawn with care from the school of Theocritus, and fitted to the several characters, are also highly pleasing.

Am. I do remember, Marian, I have oft
With pleasure kiss my lambs and puppies soft:
And once a dainty fine row-fawn I had,
Of whose out-skipping bounds, I was as glad
As of my health: and him I oft would kiss:
Yet had his no such sting or pain as this.

They

They never prick'd or hurt my heart. And, for
 They were so blunt and dull, I wish no more.
 But this, that hurts and pricks, doth please; this sweet
 Mingled with sowre, I wish again to meet:
 And that delay, methinks, most tedious is,
 That keeps or hinders me of Karol's kifs.'

If we have been exuberant in the praises of this famous relic, we must apologize for it by observing, that every one feels with additional pleasure the company of a former favourite, thrown by chance in his way.—But we must now attend to our principal object, the Continuator. It is often a painful task to follow the plans of others, and to constrain our own powers within the limits of a copy. But it is no less difficult than disagreeable to trace the images and language of other ages. If our author has failed, his failure is owing to the modern polish, ill disguised by the rust of antiquity, and a refinement of language, rather unsuitable to the Latin idiom of his model. We perceive many traces of his acquaintance with the rude sterling expressions of our former poets; and he is by on means deficient in his imitation of the classic originals of Jonson; but the more varied contexture of modern English is frequently too conspicuous. Where the language is disguised by provincial expressions, his imitation is happy, and deserves our praise. The first speech of Lorel to his mistress may be read with pleasure, even by an admirer of the Gentle Shepherd.

'Lor. Now come ye forth once mair, coy lass, and see
 Gin ye will like or scorn my gifts and me.
 Gi' mi yer hand, as white and soft as wool
 Of lambs, or down fra'neath swans' wings we pull:
 Sae soft a hand suld ha' as soft a heart;
 But yers is hard as rock—we munna' part.
 Look, I ha' brought ye wildings fra' the wood,
 And callow nestlings ta'en while the dam sought food.

Again:

'Nay, maistress mine! for tho' I pipe fu' well,
 Fit for thine ear I canno' sing mysel;
 But ye shall hear these sing, gif ye think meet,
 Yer praise, deft lass, in chirps and carols sweet.
 And here's a gaudy girlond for yer locks,
 Of zallow sun-flow'rs, and streak'd hollyhocks.
 Nay, pu' na' fae, ye shall na' that gait gang;
 Come to yon tedded grafs wi' me along:
 Or, wi' this osier gyved tul a tree
 I's use ye rough; then wife and kinder be.'

This uncouth lover is afterwards described in truly characteristic language. We shall insert some of the dialogue between

tween him and the lively Puck, a reformed spirit, but once the minister of the witch Maud. It is an advantageous specimen of our author's descriptive powers.

Puck. What should she, trow, with such a clown as thee?
Thou have Earine! a swineherd base
Of uncouth form, and scarcely human face!
With pent-house eye-brows, that together join:
Of sullen churlishness the certain sign:
A mouth distended e'en from ear to ear;
Eyes, 'stead of love, inspiring hate and fear!
Go, 'tend thy swine, nor think of such a maid,
Who e'en to look at thee is fore afraid.

Lor. What say-like elf are ye, that mock and flout!
Were ye Puck-hairy late? thus gay prank'd out.
Gif that ye were, (as by yer voice and face
Methinks it seems) and now a sprite o' grace,
Leave scorning, Robin! nor perplex me mair,
As whan my mother's simples hame I bare!
I'm sure 'twas ye that bay'd me like a wolf;
Then in my footway flamed a fiery gulph!
A night owl beat her pinions 'gainst my head,
'Till o' the ground I fell, wi' fright near dead!
Ye were that owl! and mair to gar me quake,
Ye twined around my legs like a scaled snake,
Whick whan I graspt and strave to loose, strait turn'd
To red hot iron, and a' my fingers burn'd!

Puck. True, lubber Lorel; and when thou didst spy
A will-o'-the-whisp, that meteor was I;
Which led thee in a quagmire to thy knees:
I can take any shape, thou know'st, I please.
When I was vassal to your mother, I
Could trace earth's utmost limits, now can fly
Beyond the starry sphere: whence in a thought
For the drown'd youth e'en now relief I brought;
My power is mightier than erst was Maud's!
Observe my silky wings! aerial gauds!
My coronal, compos'd of lucid beams
And flow'rets inter-twin'd! which well beseems
My iris robe, with stars and crescents bright
O'er-studded, darting round a silvery light!
This my garb now, 'stead of the shaggy vest,
Wherein Puck hairy was uncouthly drest.
Thus chang'd from beldam Maudlin's slavish drudge,
Nor on vile errands longer forc'd to trudge,
A spirit pure! I now am prone to good;
The watchful guardian of this verdant wood!
Unto the virtuous a firm friend I'll be;
But, for thou'rt evil, a fear'd foe to thee!

Lor. I priethee be not! and I's try to mend—
I'th 'stead o' harming, yet assistance lend,

I may

I may reform ; but canno' in a trice
Be chang'd a' o'er to gud fra long-lov'd vice !'

Perhaps the present poet is better fitted to sport with the nymphs and shepherds in the vale, than to describe the rugged mountains, or the crash of elements. We sometimes meet with language flat and prosaic, where a slight attention might have raised and animated it. He seems to fear a storm, and, from a cautious security, to creep when he might have soared. The following song is however elegant and poetical, and with this we shall finish our specimen.

“ How sweet the breath of milky kine,
And lambkins in the fold ;
How sweet the air bland gales refine
On upland heath or wold :
How sweet the scent of new-mown hay,
And early-blossom'd grove :
But sweeter than the breath of May
The balmy breath of love !

‘ How sweet the shepherd’s pipe of oat,
Which dawn of day doth hail ;
How sweet the merry milk-maid’s note
When seated by her pail :
How sweet the song of lark and thrush,
Or voice of cooing dove ;
But sweeter ’neath a hawthorn bush,
The votive voice of love !”

As we have not mentioned the story of Jonson’s Fragment, there is little necessity to follow that of his continuator. We need only to observe, that it is conducted with judgment and propriety. Every hint of his original is carefully preserved ; and it is highly probable that he has adopted the plan which Jonson would have followed.

Mr. Whalley’s (the last editor of Jonson) notes are preserved in the text, and some supplemental ones added. We have not met with any thing sufficiently interesting in these, to induce us to transcribe them. Shakspeare however, whom our author has studied, may probably be assisted by one of his remarks, viz. that a captured American ship was called the Scammel. Every admirer of our old poet will recollect Caliban’s promise of procuring ‘ young Scammels from the rocks ;’ and every commentator has felt the difficulty of explaining the word. This application of it seems to favour Mr. Steevens’ opinion, that it meant a bird.

The Appendix, in our author’s own words, professes ‘ to treat of *nothing* in *particular* ;’ and is tied down to no rule or form, than what may be ‘ just necessary to perspicuity.’ It contains a variety of trifling matter, chiefly relating to the early

state

state of the drama, and our elder poets; except where we meet with a long, uninteresting description of the merits of modern players. We must extract a part which again relates to Shakspeare, as every hint which has the most remote connection with him will be now highly valued.

‘ There is a circumstance relating to Shakspeare, which I have not observed to be remarked by any one who has written concerning him; that is his lameness, which he mentions in his 37th sonnet.

“ As a decrepit father takes delight
To see his active child do deeds of youth,
So I, made lame by fortune’s dearest spite,
Take all my comfort of thy worth and truth.”

‘ And again in his 89th sonnet.

“ Say that thou didst forsake me for some fault,
And I will comment upon that offence :
Speak of my lameness, and I strait will halt;
Against thy reasons making no defence.”

‘ If this lameness is to be taken (as I believe it was meant) literally, it may serve as a very sufficient reason, together with his having perhaps but an indifferent voice, why Shakspeare could not be an eminent actor.

‘ Our poet is known to have performed Adam in *As you like it*; and I cannot help thinking that in writing the play, having intended the part for himself, he has twice in the 2d act adverted to his own personal defect: the first time in a speech of Adam’s.

“ When service should in my old limbs lie lame.”

‘ And afterwards in a speech of Orlando’s,

“ There is an old poor man,
Who after me hath many a weary step
Limp’d in pure love.”

‘ Which last seems to me particularly descriptive of Shakspeare’s halting or limping gait.

‘ In his 37th sonnet there is also an implication of his being poor and despised; and in his 90th sonnet he says,

“ Now while the world is bent my deeds to cross.”

What misfortunes in his life he therein alludes to, it is now in vain to enquire; or, if he really was lame, to what accident it was owing.

‘ In Mr. Malone’s Supplement, vol. i. p. 49, and Mr. Reed’s edition of Doddsley’s Collection of Old Plays, vol. xii. p. 414, the loss of the celebrated actor Edward Alleyn’s diary, is mentioned with natural regret. It is with peculiar pleasure that I

assure the public it has been found; the present master of Dulwich college having done me the favour to shew it to me; and I have also the pleasure to acquaint those who interest themselves therein, that in addition to the extracts from it in the notes to the 2d edition of *Old Plays*, a further impartment will be shortly made for their greater satisfaction.

It is indeed true, as the author's observation has anticipated, that the Appendix consists of many things 'which do, and which do not belong to the subject;' but it is rendered amusing by a few original remarks, which deserve attention; though the rambling manner of our author, the consequence probably of a peculiar disposition, may render the reader little solicitous about the discovery. This volume is also valuable by the insertion of three poems of Jonson, not in any collection of his works, and a genuine copy of the second part of the old ballad 'Love will find out the Way,' from the *St. James' Chronicle*.—On the whole, we have derived some entertainment, and some information, from this whimsical Appendix. The author's candour and good humour would atone for greater faults than we have been able to discover in it.

History of the Reign of Philip the Third, King of Spain. By Robert Watson, LL. D. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Robinson. (Concluded from Vol. LV. Page 291.)

IN a former Review we observed, that of the six books which compose this volume, only four were written by Dr. Watson; the remaining two being the work of the gentleman to whose care the publication of the doctor's manuscript was committed. We have already concluded our account of the posthumous part of the history, and have now only to make a few observations on that which is the production of the editor.

He introduces the continuation of Dr. Watson's narrative, with exhibiting a view of the political state of Europe in the year 1609. Of this part, which is not the least meritorious of the work, we shall present our readers with the following extract, as a specimen.

'About the end of the fifteenth century, the several kingdoms of Spain formed one powerful monarchy, containing above twenty millions of inhabitants. It was well cultivated, abounded in flourishing manufactures, and was governed with equal vigour and prudence by the joint authority of Ferdinand and Isabella. These princes, agreeably to the natural progress
of

of ambition, extended their united power, by the superiority of their policy and arms, in Europe, while the inventive and daring genius of Columbus opened to their aspiring views an immense field of conquest, by the discovery of a new world. An object so animating, by its novelty as well as grandeur, nourished those seeds of ambition which had taken root in the court of Spain, and roused a spirit of enterprize among the people. A succession of bold leaders, followed by numerous adventurers, allured to their standards by the love of change, or the hope of plunder, united to the Spanish empire almost the whole of those vast regions which extend from the Gulf of Mexico to the Straights of Magellan.

The collected treasures of America, over which the cortes had not any controul, enabled Charles V. to trample on the liberties of his own subjects, and to threaten neighbouring states with universal dominion. The ambition of the emperor descended, together with his immense resources, to his son Philip II. and engaged him in projects beyond his abilities. The monarch was governed by a lust of power, and the people were seized with a spirit of emigration. The energy of the nation was diverted from domestic industry, the true source of national wealth and grandeur, and turned to distant enterprizes of colonization and of war. The monarchy became faint through the loss of its blood and treasure; and the power, on which its vast ambition had been originally founded, was subverted. But ideas of uncontrollable dominion were by this time deeply impressed on the Austrian race; and Philip III. with exhausted resources, and a feeble mind, faintly pursued the same ambitious plan that had been formed or adopted by his predecessors on the Spanish throne, not more formidable for their extensive revenues, than for the vigilance, vigour, and perseverance of their nature.

It is so natural for sovereign princes to exert every nerve to reclaim the obedience of revolted subjects, that the continuance of the war in the Netherlands till the late truce, ought not, indeed, to be accounted any proof of extraordinary ambition; and the expulsion of the Moriscos, a people industrious in an indolent climate, seemed an act by which the Spanish crown voluntarily sought its own degradation. The ambitious schemes, however, of the court of Madrid, though better concealed, and apparently suspended, were not wholly abandoned. The aggrandizement of the house of Austria was still the first object in the counsels of Spain. But her power corresponded not with her inclination; and her pursuit of greatness was sullied by those machinations which are the usual resources of impotent ambition, and which mark declining empire.

The peace of Vervins restored the appearance, but did not establish the confidence of friendship between two great and

rival kingdoms. The court of Spain continued to encourage and support the enemies of the crown of France; and the French monarch, in return, encouraged and supported the enemies of Spain. Thus the ancient antipathies of these neighbouring kingdoms were still kept alive by reciprocal injuries. But while the intrigues of Philip were dark and treacherous, the hostilities of Henry were ennobled by the occasions on which they were exercised; and the part which sound policy required him to act, was consonant to the natural generosity of his temper. This magnanimous prince, enraged at the repeated injuries he had suffered from the ambition of the Spaniards, apprized of their intrigues and influence with the discontented nobles of France, and alarmed at the dangers which threatened both his life and his crown, conceived a project of uniting different powers in a league against the encroachments of a nation which seemed still to aim at universal monarchy. His ultimate design, in the formation of such a confederacy, was to establish among the nations of Europe a new system, and to fix a durable balance of power, by the exaltation of other states on the ruins of the house of Austria.

At this time, religion was the most powerful band of union among men; and, consequently, religious sympathies and antipathies were the great engines that governed the world. The Austrians gloried in patronizing the church of Rome. Henry, from the most urgent motives of policy, had changed the profession of his faith, and embraced the catholic religion, but still possessed and deserved the confidence of the Protestants. The French monarch, of course, in a contest with the house of Austria, could depend on the good wishes of all, as he was assured of assistance from most of the princes and states of the reformed religion. With England he entered into a league for the mutual defence of that kingdom and of France. The United Provinces of the Low Countries, the protestant princes of Germany, the greater part of the imperial towns, were ready to take an active part in his intended enterprize. And Denmark and Sweden, although from their remote situations they were not so nearly interested in his designs, if they should be involved in the flames of a general war, it was easy to foresee, would espouse the cause of their protestant brethren.

But the catholic powers were not in like manner disposed to favour the house of Austria. For neither was the veneration for the ancient equal to the zeal which appeared for the new doctrines and forms of worship, nor were political motives wanting, which in certain catholic governments counterbalanced those of religion. The princes and states of Italy, who generally looked up to Henry as their protector, favoured his views secretly. But the Venetians entered openly into a league, offensive and defensive, with a monarch, through whose mediation

ation they had been enabled to maintain the civil authority of the republic in opposition to the spiritual jurisdiction of the pope, and whom they regarded as a bulwark against the encroachments of the Spanish governors of Milan. The Swiss cantons too, catholics as well as protestants, either actuated by a dread of the power of Austria, or, as other historians affirm, induced by a promise of Franche Compté, Alsace, and Tirol, embarked in this confederacy. The duke of Savoy also, a catholic prince, but who never professed an inordinate zeal for the Romish faith, Henry drew over to his side, by a promise of his eldest daughter in marriage to the prince of Piedmont, and by holding up to his ambition the sovereignty of Milan. That sovereignty the duke had in vain expected to receive in partage with Catherine, a daughter of Spain; a mortification the more severe, that the joint authority of the archduke Albert, and the infanta Isabella, governed the Austrian Netherlands.

‘The high esteem in which Henry held this new ally, appears from the terms on which he purchased his alliance. The general voice of admiration had bestowed on both these princes the title of great: and their respective talents and virtues, so formidable to each other when in a state of mutual hostility, inspired them now with reciprocal confidence.’

We cannot avoid observing that this writer, though far from being destitute of historical talents, discovers a degree of affectation, which has sometimes led him into a practice of a peculiar kind: it is that of confirming a general sentiment by a quotation from some ancient author*. Judicious reflexions require no authority to support them; and therefore the aducing of such unnecessarily, cannot fail of being construed either into a diffidence of his own judgment concerning the conduct of the passions, or into a frivolous ostentation of learning.

Where the author gives his own reflexions, without classical support, he likewise sometimes obtrudes them in a didactic manner, too direct for an historian. ‘Thus ends, says he, this singular campaign, which is not distinguished by bloody battles and splendid victories; but whose origin and issue convey important political instruction. For thence it appears, that concessions to a hostile people naturally invite them to repeat their attacks; that the only proper time for a nation to make peace, is when the enemy desires it; and that no state can admit within its bounds the arms of a superior power,

* Thus, observing that revenge is heightened by the hope of gratification, he writes below the text, from Virgil,

‘*Spes addita suscitatur iras,*’

without endangering its own independence.' It cannot escape the observation of a historical reader, that the first and the last of these propositions had been confirmed, times without number, before the campaigns mentioned by our author; and, in respect of the second, it seems too obvious to be rendered the subject of induction.

While, in some parts of the work, the author is redundant, he deviates, in others, into the blemishes of obscurity and imprecision; nor ought we to omit mentioning, that the narrative is likewise sometimes disfigured by slighter errors, which may have proceeded from inadvertency, and will probably be corrected in a future edition. Exclusive of these objections, the author has acquitted himself in a manner that merits approbation; and the two books he has furnished, make a useful supplement to the history, which, by the death of Dr. Watson, had been left incomplete.

At the same time it is worthy of observation, that as it was the plan of Dr. Watson to confine himself chiefly to general details rather than to inquire minutely into Spanish anecdotes and antiquities, his continuator has judged with prudence in consulting the unity of the work, and in abstaining from that particular and circumstantial manner which would have been becoming and proper in a native of Spain, writing anxiously for the satisfaction of his countrymen.

Letters to Dr. Horsley, in Answer to his Animadversions on the History of the Corruptions of Christianity. With additional Evidence that the Primitive Christian Church was Unitarian. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THE progress of the mind in different persons affords a curious, and, in some cases, a useful speculation. A man who has but a little learning, and is of a contracted way of thinking, generally sits down contented with that portion of knowledge which he acquired in his youth, and finishes his studies. In matters of religion, he adopts the opinion which his forefathers have taught him, and thinks it pious to believe what he cannot comprehend. When he meets with any thing which contradicts his pre-conceived notions, he opposes all conviction, shuts his eyes against the light, and shelters himself under the veil of orthodoxy, and implicit faith in the documents of that communion to which he belongs.

A deist or a libertine has been frequently known to change his sentiments in the latter part of his life, to adopt the most absurd tenets of Calvinism, and to commence a flaming methodist.

thodist. This change of sentiment, like the perseverance of the former, is the effect of ignorance; for

‘Fools are ever vicious in extremes.’

A man of real learning, and a strong active mind, disdains to be controuled by the prejudices of education; he is open to reason and evidence: truth is the object of his researches; and he pursues his enquiries with steadiness, impartiality, and freedom.

The learned author of the work now before us has given us the following short history of the progress of his thoughts, with respect to the Trinitarian controversy.

‘Having been educated in the strictest principles of Calvinism, and having from my early years had a serious turn of mind, promoted no doubt by a weak and sickly constitution, I was very sincere and zealous in my belief of the doctrine of the trinity; and this continued till I was about nineteen; and then I was as much shocked on hearing of any who denied the divinity of Christ (thinking it to be nothing less than impiety and blasphemy) as any of my opponents can be now. I therefore truly feel for them, and most sincerely excuse them.

‘About the age of twenty, being then in a regular course of theological studies, I saw reason to change my opinion, and became an Arian; and notwithstanding what appeared to me a fair and impartial study of the scriptures, and though I had no bias on my mind arising from subscribed creeds, and confessions of faith, &c. I continued in that persuasion fifteen or sixteen years; and yet in that time I was well acquainted with Dr. Lardner, Dr. Fleming, and several other zealous Socinians, especially my friend Mr. Graham. The first theological tract of mine (which was on the doctrine of atonement) was published at the particular request, and under the direction of Dr. Lardner; and he approving of the scheme which I had then formed, of giving a short view (which was all that I had then thought of) of the progress of the corruptions of christianity, he gave me a few hints with respect to it. But still I continued till after his death indisposed to the Socinian hypothesis. After this, continuing my study of the scriptures, with the help of his Letters on the Logos, I at length changed my opinion, and became what is called a Socinian; and in this I see continually more reason to acquiesce, though it was a long time before the arguments in favour of it did more than barely preponderate in my mind. For the arguments which had the principal weight with me at that time, and particularly those texts of scripture which so long retarded my change of opinion, I refer my readers to the Theological Repository, vol. iii. p. 345.

‘I was greatly confirmed in this doctrine after I was fully satisfied that man is of an uniform composition, and wholly mortal; and that the doctrine of a separate immaterial soul,

capable of sensation and action when the body is in the grave, is a notion borrowed from heathen philosophy, and unknown to the scriptures. Of this I had for a long time a mere suspicion; but having casually mentioned it as such, and a violent outcry being raised against me on that account, I was induced to give the greatest attention to the question, to examine it in every light, and to invite the fullest discussion of it. This terminated in as full a conviction with respect to this subject as I have with respect to any other whatever. The reasons on which that conviction is founded may be seen in my *Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit*, of which I have lately published a new and improved edition.

Being now fully persuaded that Christ was a man like ourselves, and consequently that his pre-existence, as well as that of other men, was a notion that had no foundation in reason or in the scriptures; and having been gradually led (in consequence of wishing to trace the principal corruptions of christianity) to give particular attention to ecclesiastical history, I could not help thinking but that (since the doctrine of the pre-existence of Christ was not the doctrine of the scriptures, and therefore could not have been taught by the apostles) there must be some traces of the rise and progress of the doctrine of the trinity, and some historical evidence that *unitarianism* was the general faith of christians in the apostolical age, independent of the evidence which arose from its being the doctrine of the scriptures.

In this state of mind, the reader will easily perceive that I naturally expected to find, what I was previously well persuaded was to be found; and in time I collected much more evidence than I at first expected, considering the early rise, and the long and universal spread of what I deem to be a radical corruption of the genuine christian doctrine. This evidence I have fairly laid before the reader. He must judge of the weight of it, and also make whatever allowance he may think necessary for my particular situation and prejudices.

This, we make no doubt, is a fair and ingenuous declaration of our author's change of sentiments, which some will call 'a departure from the faith;' but, in his favour, we must observe, that many of the most liberal and ingenious men of the present age have been educated in the principles of Calvinism, and, in consequence of reading and thinking, have abandoned that persuasion, and pursued the very tract which Dr. Priestley has followed, though not to the same extent as this writer. On the other hand, we have heard of none, or very few among the learned, who have quitted other systems of doctrine and embraced the principles of Calvin, on a fair and impartial study of the scriptures. The former is the tract which reason points out; and it depends upon every man's
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prudence and discretion to stop where he thinks the truth is to be found.

In this tract our author deduces an argument for the late origin of the doctrine of Christ's divinity, from the difficulty of tracing the time in which it was first divulged. This argument is in a great measure new, and urged with considerable force and energy.

Having observed that none of the apostles seem to have had the least idea that Jesus was God, while he continued with them, Dr. Priestley thus proceeds :

' If you suppose that the divinity of Christ was unknown to the apostles till the day of Pentecost ; besides losing the benefit of several of your arguments for this great doctrine, which you now carefully collect from the four evangelists, we have no account of any such discovery having been made at that time, or at any subsequent one. And of other articles of illumination, of much less consequence than this, we have distinct information, and also of the manner in which they impressed them. This is particularly the case with respect to the extension of the blessings of the gospel to uncircumcised Gentiles. But what was this article, the knowledge of their master being the most high God ?

' If the doctrine of the divinity of Christ had been actually preached by the apostles, and the Jewish converts in general had adopted it, it could not but have been well known to the unbelieving Jews ; and would they, who were at that time, and have been ever since, so exceedingly zealous with respect to the doctrine of the divine unity, not have taken the alarm, and have urged this objection to christianity, as teaching the belief of more Gods than one in the apostolic age ; and yet no trace of any thing of this nature can be perceived in the whole history of the book of Acts, or any where else in the New Testament. As soon as ever the Jews had any pretence for it, we find them sufficiently quick and vehement in urging this their great objection to christianity. To answer the charge of holding two, or three Gods, is a very considerable article in the writings of several of the ancient christian fathers. Why then do we find nothing of this kind in the age of the apostles ? The only answer is, that there then was no occasion for it, the doctrine of the divinity of Christ not having then been started.

' Consider, Sir, the charge that was advanced against Peter and John at the first promulgation of the gospel. You will find it amounts to nothing but their being disturbers of the people, by preaching in the name of Jesus. What was the accusation against Stephen (Acts vi. 13.) but his speaking blasphemous things against the temple and the law ? Accompany the apostle Paul in all his travels, and attend to his discourses with the Jews in their synagogues, and their perpetual and inveterate persecution of him, you will find no trace of their so
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much as suspecting that he preached a new divinity, as the godhead of Christ must have appeared, and always has appeared to them.

‘ In the year 58, Paul tells the elders the church of Ephesus (Acts xx. 27.) that he had not failed to declare unto them the whole counsel of God. We may be confident, therefore, that, if he had any such doctrine to divulge, he must have taught it in the three years that he spent in that city from 54 to 57; and as the unbelieving Jews were well apprized of all his motions, having laid wait for him on this very journey to Jerusalem, they must have been informed of his having taught this doctrine, and would certainly have carried the news of it to Jerusalem, where many of them attended, as well as he, at the ensuing feast of Pentecost. But if we attend Paul thither, where we have a very particular account of all the proceedings against him, for the space of two years, we shall find no trace of any thing of the kind. All their complaints against him fell far short of this.

‘ What was the occasion of the first clamour against him? Was it not (Acts xxi. 28.) that he taught all men every where against the people, and against the law, and against the temple, and that he had brought Greeks into it? Is it not plain that they had no more serious charge against him? Read his speech to the people, his defence before Felix, and again before Agrippa; you will find no trace of his having taught any doctrine so offensive to the Jews as that of the divinity of Christ must have been. Considering the known prejudices, and the inveteracy of the Jews, no reasonable man need desire any clearer proof than this, that neither Paul, nor any of the apostles, had ever taught the doctrine of the divinity of Christ at that time; and this was so near the time of the wars of the Jews, and the dispersion of that people, that there was no opportunity of preaching it with effect afterwards.

‘ Consider also the conduct of the Jewish christians, who had strong prejudices against Paul, as we find in this part of his history; and according to the testimony of all historians, they retained those prejudices as long as they had any name, and after the destruction of Jerusalem, which was not long after the close of the history of the Acts, no trace can be found of their believing any such doctrine as the divinity of Christ. Now, though their enmity to Paul continued, and they never considered his writings as canonical scripture, yet to the very last, their objections to him amounted to nothing more than his being no friend to the law of Moses.’ —

‘ Considerations of this kind, if they occur to him, no person, who thinks at all, can absolutely neglect, so as to satisfy himself with having no hypothesis on the subject. You certainly find the apostles, as well as the rest of the Jews, without any knowledge of the divinity of Christ, with whom they lived and conversed as a man; and if they ever became acquainted with

with it, there must have been a time when it was either discovered by them, or made known to them; and the effects of the acquisition, or the communication of extraordinary knowledge, are in general proportionably conspicuous.

‘ Had we had no written history of our Saviour’s life, or of the preaching of the apostles, or only some very concise one; still so very extraordinary an article as this would hardly have been unknown, or have passed unrecorded; much less when the history is so full and circumstantial as it is.

‘ Had there been any pretence for imagining that the Jews in our Saviour’s time had any knowledge of the doctrine of the trinity, and that they expected the second person in it in the character of their Messiah, the question I propose to you would have been needless. But nothing can be more evident than that, whatever you may fancy with respect to more ancient times, every notion of the trinity was obliterated from the minds of the Jews in our Saviour’s time. It is, therefore, not only a curious, but a serious and important question, When was it introduced, and by what steps? I have answered it on my hypothesis of its being an innovation and a corruption of the christian doctrine; do you the same on your idea of its being an essential part of it.’

We shall not detain our readers with a particular detail of the arguments and observations contained in these Letters. It will be sufficient to observe, that the author has treated Dr. Horsley with politeness and liberality; and supported his opinion against that learned writer, and the Monthly Reviewers, in a masterly manner. And so far is he from being intimidated by his adversaries, that he wishes to draw out the ablest men, both on the trinitarian and the Arian side of the question. The controversy is certainly of the highest importance, and the subject is by no means exhausted. Other opponents will probably arise. But let it ever be remembered, that petulance and acrimony, and terms of reproach, are extremely indecent in all disquisitions relative to the Deity, or the divine author of christianity.

Letters of the late Ignatius Sancho, an African. In Two Volumes. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of his Life. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Dilly.

THE worthy Ignatius Sancho was honoured with the friendship of some of the most distinguished persons in the nation; and is already known to the public for his correspondence with the celebrated Sterne. The original motive for introducing his name to the world, was the desire of evincing, that an untutored African may possess abilities equal to those of an European; and it must be acknowledged that,

in support of this proposition, the Letters before us afford full and indubitable testimony. The present, however, is not the only instance of the kind recorded in the annals of literature. Rome, in the most flourishing age of the republic, acquired, by the means of a native of Africa, such reputation to her theatre as not only rendered her the rival of Greece in comedy, but has transmitted to all posterity an unequalled example of dramatic purity and elegance. Allied to Terence by the quarter in which he was born, and to Epictetus by the fortune of his early life, it may be affirmed, that, in these Letters of Ignatius Sancho, we meet with the ingenuity of his com-patriot, and the philosophical sentiments of the moralist.

This extraordinary person was born in the year 1729, on board a ship in the slave-trade, a few days after it had quitted the coast of Guinea for the Spanish West Indies; where the new climate soon put an end to the life of his mother; and a fit of desperation, excited by the insupportable horrors of slavery, to the existence of his father. At little more than two years of age, the child, who had already received the name of Ignatius, was brought to England by his master, who gave him to three maiden sisters, resident at Greenwich, by whom, in the petulance of their disposition, he was distinguished by the surname of Sancho. The late duke of Montagu, who then lived at Blackheath, says the biographer, accidentally saw the little Negroe, and admired in him a frankness of manner, as yet unbroken by servitude, and unrefined by education. He brought him frequently home to the duchess, indulged his turn for reading with presents of books, and strongly recommended to his mistresses the duty of cultivating a genius of such apparent fertility. The temper of those ladies however was far from being suited to so generous a disposition; and, instead of fostering the natural talents of young Ignatius, they often threatened to return him to his African slavery. He determined at last to abandon the house of the three sisters; and his noble patron being recently dead, he flew for protection to the duchess, who, after some difficulty, occasioned by the report of an amour in which Sancho was said to have been detected, admitted him into her household, where he remained, as butler, until her death. He was afterwards taken into the family of the present duke of Montagu, who honoured him with his favour during a service of considerable length. Towards the close of the year 1773, repeated attacks of the gout, and a constitutional corpulence, rendering him incapable of farther attendance in the duke's family, he settled himself in a shop of grocery, in Westminster, with a deserving young woman whom he had
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some time before married; and here, with rigid industry, they decently maintained a numerous family of children. At last, in December 1780, a series of complicated disorders put an end to the life of this honest and respected African.

Such is the account of Mr. Ignatius Sancho, as delivered by his biographer. With regard to his talents, an idea of them will be best conceived from his Letters; for which purpose we have made the following extracts.

August 8, 1777.

“ Know your own self, presume not God to scan;

“ The only science of mankind, is man.”

‘ There is something so amazingly grand—so stupendously affecting—in the contemplating the works of the Divine Architect, either in the moral or the intellectual world, that I think one may rightly call it the cordial of the soul—it is the physic of the mind—and the best antidote against weak pride—and the supercilious murmurings of discontent.—Smoaking my morning pipe, the friendly warmth of that glorious planet the sun—the leniency of the air—the chearful glow of the atmosphere—made me involuntarily cry, “ Lord, what is man, that thou in thy mercy art so mindful of him! or what the son of man, that thou so parentally carest for him!” David, whose heart and affections were naturally of the first kind (and who indeed had experienced blessings without number) pours forth the grateful sentiments of his enraptured soul in the sweetest modulations of pathetic oratory;—the tender mercies of the Almighty are not less to many of his creatures—but their hearts—unlike the royal disposition of the shepherd king, are cold, and untouched with the sweet ray of gratitude.—Let us, without meanly sheltering our infirmities under the example of others—perhaps worse taught—or possessed of less leisure for self-examination—let us, my dear M——, look into ourselves—and, by a critical examination of the past events of our lives, fairly confess what mercies we have received—what God in his goodness hath done for us—and how our gratitude and praise have kept pace in imitation of the son of Jesse.—Such a research would richly pay us—for the end would be conviction—so much on the side of miraculous mercy—such an unanswerable proof of the superintendency of Divine Providence, as would effectually cure us of rash despondency—and melt our hearts—with devotional aspirations—till we poured forth the effusions of our souls in praise and thanksgiving.—When I sometimes endeavour to turn my thoughts inwards, to review the power or properties the indulgent all-wise Father has endowed me with, I am struck with wonder and with awe—worm, poor insignificant reptile as I am, with regard to superior beings—mortal like myself.—Amongst, and at the very head of our riches, I reckon the power of reflection:—Where? where, my friend, doth it lie?—Search every member from the toe to the

the nose—all—all ready for action—but all dead to thought—it lies not in matter—nor in the blood—it is a party, which though we feel and acknowledge, quite past the power of definition—it is that breath of life which the Sacred Architect breathed into the nostrils of the first man—image of his gracious Maker—and let it animate our torpid gratitude—it rolls on, although diminished by our cruel fall, through the whole race.—“We are fearfully and wonderfully made,” &c. &c. were the sentiments of the Royal Preacher upon a self-review—but had he been blessed with the full blaze of the Christian dispensation—what would have been his raptures?—The promise of never, never-ending existence and felicity, to possess eternity—“glorious dreadful thought!”—to rise, perhaps, by regular progression, from planet to planet—to behold the wonders of immensity—to pass from good to better—increasing in goodness—knowledge—love—to glory in our Redeemer—to joy in ourselves—to be acquainted with prophets, sages, heroes, and poets of old times—and join in symphony with angels!—And now, my friend, thou smilest at my futile notions—why preach to thee?—For this very good and simple reason, to get your thoughts in return.—You shall be my philosopher—my Mentor—my friend;—you, happily disengaged from various cares of life and family, can review the little world of man with steadier eye, and more composed thought, than your friend, declining fast into the vale of years, and beset with infirmity and pain.—Write now and then, as thought prompts, and inclination leads—refute my errors—where I am just, give me your plaudit.—Your welfare is truly dear in my sight; and if any man has a share in my heart, or commands my respect and esteem, it is I——M——.

‘Witness my mark,

‘I. SANCHO.’

‘To Mr. L——.

‘MY DEAR CHILD, May 4, 1779.

‘I am truly sorry to address this letter to you at this season in the English Channel.—The time considered that you have left us, you ought in all good reason to have been a seasoned Creole of St. Kitt’s;—but we must have patience:—what cannot be cured must be endured.—I dare believe you bear the cruel delay with resignation—and make the best and truest use of your time, by steady reflection and writing.—I would wish you to note down the occurrences of every day—to which add your own observation of men and things—the more you habituate yourself to minute investigation, the stronger you will make your mind;—ever taking along with you in all your researches the word of God—and the operations of his divine providence.—Remember, young man—nothing happens by chance.—Let not the levity of frothy wit, nor the absurdity of fools, break in upon your happier principles, your dependence upon

upon the Deity—address the Almighty with fervour, with love and simplicity—carry his laws in your heart—and command both worlds;—but I meant mere fatherly advice, and I have wrote a sermon.—Dear boy, 'tis my love preaches; N—— begged me to write a line for him, as he said you wanted news—I have none but what you know as well as myself—such as the regard and best wishes of Mrs. Sancho—the girls and myself—such as wishing a happy end to your long-protracted voyage—and a joyful meeting with your worthy and respectable family;—and in order to leave room for friend N——, I here assure you I am your affectionate friend,

'I. SANCHO.'

'To Mr. R——.

'MY DEAR WORTHY R——,

May, 1779:

'YOUR letter was a real gratification to a something better principle than pride—it pleased my self-love—there are very few (believe me) whose regards or notice I care about—yourself—brother, and O——, with about three more at most—form the whole of my male friendly connexions.—Your brother is not half so honest as I thought him—he promises like a tradesman, but performs like a lord.—On Sunday evening we expected him—the hearth was swept—the kettle boiled—the girls were in print—and the marks of the folds in Mrs. Sancho's apron still visible—the clock past six—no Mr. R——. Now to tell the whole truth, he did add a kind of clause, that in case nothing material happened of hospital business, he would surely do himself the &c. &c. &c.—So, upon the whole, I am not quite clear that he deserves censure—but that he disappointed us of a pleasure, I am very certain.—You don't say you have seen Mr. P——. I beg you will, for I think he is the kind of soul congenial to your own.—Apropos, the right hand side (almost the bottom) of Gray Street, there is a Mrs. H——, an honest and very agreeable northern lady, whom I should like you to know something of—which may easily be done—if you will do me the credit just to knock at her door when you go that way—and tell her there is a Devil that has not forgot her civilities to him—and would be glad to hear she was well and happy.—Mr. R—— called on me in the friendly style—when I say that, I mean in the R—— manner—he asked a question—bought some tea—looked happy—and left us pleased:—he has the graces.—The gout seized me yesterday morning—the second attempt—I looked rather black all day:—tell Mrs. C——, I will lay any odds that she is either the handsomest or ugliest woman in Bath—and among the many trinkets she means to bring with her—tell her not to forget health.—May you all be enriched with that blessing—wanting which, the good things of this world are trash.—You can write tiresome letters! Alas! will you yield upon the receipt of this?—if not—that palm unquestionably belongs to your friend,

'I. SANCHO.'

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As farther evidence of this extraordinary character, we are told by the biographer, that a commerce with the Muses was supported by him amid the trivial and continual interruptions of a shop; the poets were studied, and even imitated with some success; two pieces were composed for the stage; the Theory of Music was discussed, published, and dedicated to the princess royal; and painting was so much within the circle of Ignatius Sancho's judgment and criticism, that several artists paid great deference to his opinion. An additional motive to that above mentioned for the publication of these letters, is the wish of serving the family of so worthy and ingenious a man; whose wife, we believe, lives in the same shop in Charles-street, Westminster, which was occupied by her husband.

Observations on the River Wye, and several Parts of South Wales, &c. By William Gilpin, A.M. 8vo. 12s. Blamire.

WE have followed our entertaining author with great pleasure, and consequently recommend him as a very agreeable companion. He possesses, in an eminent degree, the art of bringing the prospect immediately before us, and at the same time of pointing out its beauties and defects. 'The following little work, he says, proposes a new object of pursuit; that of not barely examining the face of a country; but of examining it by the rules of picturesque beauty: that of not merely describing, but of adapting the description of natural scenery to the principles of artificial landscape; and of opening the sources of those pleasures which are derived from the comparison.'

This attempt may at first appear ridiculous, as it tends to confine nature to the limits of a system, certainly imperfect, and perhaps erroneous. But it ought to be considered, that we survey her only in detail, and that the imperfections of the system are exactly those of our own organs. When we receive pleasure from a prospect, or from a picture, it is from the contemplation of a limited spot; in the latter, the rules of art have confined the spot to that which we are capable of surveying *as a whole*, without fatigue either to the sight or to the mind. To analyse a prospect, therefore, we must refer to the same rules; and, though in general erroneous, they will appear relatively exact. Our author has examined nature with great attention, chiefly on the ruder and more sublime scenes; and the effects of his experience seem to be an exquisite acuteness in discovering that beauty or deformity which arises either from the properties of a single object, or
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the combination of different ones. It will be necessary however to give his principles in his own words.

‘ After sailing four miles from Ross, we came to Goodrich-castle ; where a very grand view presented itself ; and we rested on our oars to examine it. A reach of the river, forming a noble bay, is spread before the eye. The bank, on the right, is steep, and covered with wood ; beyond which a bold promontory shoots out, crowned with a castle, rising among the trees.

‘ This view, which is one of the grandest on the river, I should not scruple to call correctly picturesque ; which is seldom the character of a purely natural scene.

‘ Nature is always great in design ; but unequal in composition. She is an admirable colourist ; and can harmonize her tints with infinite variety, and inimitable beauty : but is seldom so correct in composition, as to produce an harmonious whole. Either the foreground or the background, is disproportioned : or some awkward line runs across the piece : or a tree is ill-placed : or a bank is formal : or something or other is not exactly what it should be. The case is, the immensity of nature is beyond human comprehension. She works on a vast scale ; and, no doubt, harmoniously, if her schemes could be comprehended. The artist, in the mean time, is confined to a span. He lays down his little rules therefore, which he calls the principles of picturesque beauty, merely to adapt such diminutive parts of nature’s surfaces to his own eye, as come within its scope.

‘ Hence therefore, the painter, who adheres strictly to the composition of nature, will rarely make a good picture. This picture must contain a whole : his archetype is but a part.

‘ In general however, he may obtain views of such parts of nature, as with the addition of a few trees, or a little alteration in the foreground, (which is a liberty that must always be allowed) may be adapted to his rules ; though he is rarely so fortunate as to find a landscape completely satisfactory to him. In the scenery indeed at Goodrich castle, the parts are few ; and the whole is a very simple exhibition. The complex scenes of nature are generally those, which the artist finds most refractory to the rules of composition.

‘ In following the course of the Wye, which makes here one of its boldest sweeps, we were carried almost round the castle, surveying it in a variety of forms. Many of these retrospects are good ; but, in general, the castle loses, on this side, both its own dignity, and the dignity of its situation.’

We have selected the following passage partly as a specimen of the author’s descriptive powers, and partly on account of the justness and good sense which distinguish the concluding observations.

‘ As we leave Goodrich castle, the banks on the left, which had hitherto contributed less to entertain us, began now principally to attract our attention; rearing themselves gradually into grand steeps; sometimes covered with thick woods; and sometimes forming vast concave slopes of mere verdure; unadorned, except here and there, by a stragling tree: while the flocks which hung *browsing* upon them, seen from the bottom, were diminished into white specks.

‘ The view at Rure-dean-church unfolds itself next; which is a scene of great grandeur. Here, both sides of the river are steep, and both woody; but in one the woods are intermixed with rocks. The deep umbrage of the forest of Dean occupies the front; and the spire of the church rises among the trees. The reach of the river, which exhibits this scene, is long; and of course the view, which is a noble piece of natural perspective, continues some time before the eye: but when the spire comes directly in front, the grandeur of the landscape is gone.

‘ The stone-quarries on the right, from which the bridge of Bristol was built; and on the left, the furnaces of Bishop’s-wood, vary the scene, though of no great importance in themselves.

‘ For some time, both sides of the river continue steep and beautiful. No particular object indeed characterizes either: but nature always characterizes her own scenes. We admire the infinite variety with which she shapes and adorns these vast concave and convex forms. We admire also that varied touch, with which she expresses every object.

‘ Here we see one great distinction between her painting, and that of all her copyists. Artists universally are mannerists in a certain degree. Each has his particular mode of forming particular objects. His rocks, his trees, his figures are cast in one mould: at least they possess only a varied sameness. Rubens’s figures are all full fed: Salvator’s, spare and long-legged.

‘ The artist also discovers as little variety in filling up the surfaces of bodies, as he does in delineating their forms. You see the same touch, or something like it, universally prevail, though applied to different objects.

‘ In every part of painting, except execution, an artist may be assisted by the labours of those who have gone before him. He may improve his skill in composition, in light and shade, in perspective, in grace and elegance; that is, in all the scientific parts of his art: but with regard to execution, he must set up on his own stock. A mannerist, I fear, he must be. If he get a manner of his own, he may be an agreeable mannerist: but if he copy another’s, he will certainly be a formal one. The more closely he copies nature, the better chance he has of being free from this general defect.’

Mr. Gilpin’s description of Tintern Abbey is highly interesting and beautiful. We catch that happy enthusiasm which seems

seems to have animated the author, and to have carried him to the days of other years; while, in its turn, we feel the gloomy melancholy, which ruins extensive, if not important; and grand, if not useful, never fail of inspiring. As we pass these monuments of the transitory condition of human prosperity, we anticipate the ruin of gorgeous palaces, of solemn temples, nay of the great globe itself. We feel that we are but the creatures of an instant, and perhaps that the whole which we survey, is but the arrangement of a moment, already passing away, to give room for another scene, and for different objects.

This seducing author offers so many beauties to our choice, that we are almost unable to prefer one, because we are so powerfully solicited by others. But, as it is our business to enable the reader to judge for himself, we shall select descriptions of a different kind.

‘ Having passed the Mount Cenis of this country, we fell into the same kind of beautiful scenery on this side of it, which we had left on the other: only here the scene was continually shifting, as if by magical interposition.

‘ We were first presented with a view of a deep woody glen, lying below us; which the eye could not penetrate, resting only on the tops, and tuftings of the trees.

‘ This suddenly vanished; and a grand rocky bank arose in front, richly adorned with woods.

‘ It was instantly gone; and we were shut up in a close, woody lane.

In a moment the lane opened on the right, and we had a view of an enchanting vale.

‘ We caught its beauties as a vision only. In an instant they fled; and in their room arose two bold woody promontories. We could just discover between them, as they floated past, a creek, or the mouth of a river, or a channel of the sea; we knew not what it was: but it seemed divided by a stretch of land of dingy hue, which appeared like a sand-bank.

‘ This scene shifting, immediately arose on our left, a vast hill, covered with wood; through which, here and there, projected huge masses of rock.

‘ In a few moments it vanished, and a grove of trees suddenly shot up in its room.

‘ But before we could even discover of what species they were, the rocky hill, which had just appeared on the left, winding rapidly round, presented itself full in front. It had now acquired a more tremendous form. The wood, which had before hid its terrors, were now gone; and the rocks were all left, in their native wildness, everywhere bursting from the soil.

‘ Many of the objects, which had floated so rapidly past us, if we had had time to examine them, would have given us sub-

lime and beautiful tints in landscape: some of them seemed even well combined, and ready prepared for the pencil; but, in so quick a succession, one blotted out another.--The country at length giving way on both sides, a view opened, which suffered the eye to rest upon it.

The river Neath, covered with shipping, was spread before us. Its banks were enriched with wood, amidst which arose the ruins of Neath-Abbey, with its double tower. Beyond the river, the country arose in hills; which were happily adorned, when we saw them, in a clear serene evening, with one or two of those distant forges or charcoal-pits, which we admired on the banks of the Wye; wreathing a light veil of smoke along their summits, and blending them sweetly with the sky.—Through this landscape we entered the town of Neath; which, with its old castle and bridges, excited many picturesque ideas.

In every step we perceive the exact discriminations of a polished taste, and the decisions of real judgment. These are not the light airy descriptions of a casual traveller, but the remarks of an acute observer, and a rational enquirer. It is surprising that, as in this tour the weather was particularly unfavourable, his descriptions should have been so particular; though this, at first, may raise some suspicions of the fidelity of the narrative, yet it may, we think, be easily explained. Somewhat may certainly be owing to the acute feelings of the author, and the allowances which his experience had enabled him to make for these unfortunate occurrences. It ought also to be remarked, that he has described objects which were near him, and of the sublimer cast. Rain frequently renders the former more clear, and the distant cloud-capped mountain appears more rude and majestic, from the very circumstance of its obscurity. Wet weather undoubtedly detracts from the cheerful appearance of the meadows, and deprives the tree and the flower of their peculiar beauties; but Mr. Gilpin's objects were frequently of a different kind; and though the rain was by no means desirable, yet it certainly did not disable him from observing the different views, and describing them in clear and animated language.

We are promised an account, in some future work, of the lakes and mountains of the northern parts, if the present succeeds, of which we entertain little doubt. We shall retrace our own steps with pleasure; for our remarks on the influence of the weather were made in those enchanting regions, where the greatest beauties are often blended with the most majestic sublimity; where the various elements combine to furnish prospects equally delightful and tremendous.

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The etchings, which accompany this volume, represent only the general effect; but though they can scarcely add to the perspicuity of the description, they are pleasing ornaments, in an elegant and unusual style.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

The proper Limits of the Government's Interference with the Affairs of the East India Company, attempted to be assigned. With some few Reflections extorted by, and on, the distracted State of the Times. By John, Earl of Stair. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

THE earl of Stair, who has so often laid before the public his thoughts on the national expenditure, again takes up the pen on a subject of the utmost political importance. His lordship's present design, however, is so far connected with his former researches, that, in the preamble, he enters his dissent against any increase of the public debt, by the addition and incorporation of the debts of the East India company with those of the public, in any manner, whether openly, or by implication and management. After this protest, the earl of Stair proceeds to consider the reasons offered in vindication of the late East India bill.

'The first plea that was insisted on, says his lordship, was, that the company was bankrupt; but this argument defeats itself. If they are bankrupt, the law has provided a due course of proceeding: ministers, or the deputies of ministers, are not the proper assignees to the bankrupt's estate: the trade is, moreover, by the civil death of the company, open to every adventurer. But this pretext of bankruptcy is but a flimsy disguise easily seen through: ministers are not so eager to obtain the administration of the affairs of a bankrupt: the virtuous majority in the house of commons, increased without any visible cause, or known success, or advantage of any kind, real or pretended, obtained to the public from the cares of the late administration;—increased, I say, from a small doubtful few in the disapprobation of the peace, to a steady, triumphant majority of one hundred and fourteen in the business of the East India company; gives no note or appearance of a present bankruptcy in the company's affairs; but to those that do not know the incorruptible integrity and disinterestedness of the British legislative bodies, gives an ugly hint and surmise of what is likely to happen in future. Of bankruptcy I need say no more; it confutes itself.

'The next plea is humanity, and a wish to restore in India a better and a juster system of government, less rapacious, and less oppressive to the natives. This is certainly a fair and ge-

erous object; but how do the means correspond with the end, or what solid proof have we that excesses do exist, or, at least, have been carried to the singular and unnatural extent each parliamentary declaimer is pleased to assign to them? Having forced the company to bear a share in all the foolish wars Britain involved herself in, money must be found. The smooth swindling methods of funding, without giving the creditors adequate securities for either principal or interest, are not practicable in China. Self-preservation enforced the necessity of violence, more obnoxious in the beginning, but perhaps in the end less ruinous than the soft, sly deceits of Europe. Those violent measures, palliated by the necessity of self-preservation, excepted, what remains but an *ex parte* charge, in reports to the house of commons, curious and voluminous indeed, but without confrontation of the accused, or any other necessary preliminary to condemnation, sought by private equity, or required by public justice? We have only an informal mass of matter, where disappointment, vanity, and malevolence, are too often prompted by management and design to accuse, and every accusation is held forth as complete evidence of guilt. Indeed some accounts, scattered through the vast abyss of eastern manners and customs, make by much the most useful and entertaining part of this exceedingly tedious farrago; though in this part it falls far short in beauty of style and composition, and probably does not much exceed in veracity, the Arabian Night's Entertainments.—But grant that wrongs and injustice predominate, who are to restore the golden age in India? We know the late ministry, their habits, and connections; from Brooks's, then, it is fair to suppose the daring Argonauts were to have sailed in search of the golden fleece; from Almack's our bold Pizarros must have taken their course to civilize our new-acquired ministerial Peru. Determined minds used to set fame and fortune on the die's uncertain cast: soft souls, overflowing with Christian forbearance, and the milk of human kindness sucked in at the gaming-table, from such apostles, alas! I rather should suspect,

‘ With Atè by their side, come hot from hell,
Shall in these confines, with a monarch's voice,
Cry havock! and let slip the dogs of war.

‘ Yet I readily agree that it may be proper to send out a well-chosen commission of visitation and inspection, with adequate and efficient powers from parliament; though I am greatly deceived, if they do not find that matters are much exaggerated. The reports to the house of commons from committees are generally very false mediums to view the object they treat of through: they are moved for common by persons interested in the event, sedulously attended by them, and the materials are too often modelled and made up according to their views, and to serve their purposes. I have therefore ever greatly regretted

gretted the abolition of the board of trade, the fair, candid judges in these matters, or who might be made so. The argument from the abuse to the use, is not a fair consequence; and I sincerely and earnestly recommend the re-establishment of that board. From the revenues of the duchy court of Lancaster now vacant, and a small gleanings from the enormous overgrown sinecures in the Exchequer, this may be done without expence, and with great emolument to the crown and to the public.'

Lord Stair declares himself of opinion, that it would be extremely improper for the public to make a common cause with the East India company, farther than he has already stated, and likewise by assisting them with some necessary pecuniary aid in their present distress. The consequences of the public taking upon themselves the direction of the company's trade, or even of their territorial acquisitions, he apprehends, would be most ruinous. In support of this opinion he observes, that no nation has ever attempted any thing of the kind without being great losers by it, even where government was conducted on principles infinitely more favourable to such an enterprize than the free constitution of this country admits of.

His lordship, having delivered his opinion concerning the method which he thinks most expedient for assisting the East India company, makes a transition to the distracted state of the times, on which he animadvert with his usual freedom and poignancy.

'A new doctrine, says he, has been likewise attempted to be established in favour of the late India bill, viz. that measures are not to be so fully and fairly canvassed as they ought, but are to rely and be supported by the responsibility of the proposer of them. The presumption and absurdity of such a proposition is too great to require an answer. The responsibility of the proposer often would not procure him ten pounds; and as to any thing sanguinary, God knows! the hazard is very, very trifling. Indeed, the persons who avowedly, first by denial of justice to America, plunged us into a war, and afterwards, by obstinately persevering in it, when experience had evinced the success was impracticable; and who by so doing have irretrievably (I fear) undone their country, enjoy in pomp and serenity, even to ostentation, the honours and lucrative employments heaped upon them. If justice is demanded for glory, for wealth, for dominion lost, they pay you with an ideal jest: if you want more, a ready vote of acquittal is at hand from a packt majority, united on the most sordid principles, to promote each other's advantage, in open and abandoned violation, on one part of the coalition, of the faith a thousand times pledged to bring delinquents to justice, who now are not only protected, but represented, with a falsehood and inconsistency that degrades human nature, as great, wise, and virtuous ministers, by those very men who not very many months stigmatized them as the base undoers of their country.

‘ His majesty has, however, been pleased to nominate a new ministry: they are young and untried; I wish them well; and my poor support shall be theirs, if they deserve it. I hope their real essential bond of union is at least less dangerous than that of their predecessors, viz. through violation of charters to obtain the plunder of India for themselves and adherents.

‘ I should have thought a dissolution of parliament necessary to have preceded, in order to procure any stability in the settlement of a new ministry. The reason offered against this measure was quite trifling, viz. the delay of public business; for the parliament would have been dissolved, and a new one elected, in little more than the period of usual recess at this time of the year; which recess was not intended to have been shortened, if the late overthrow of the ministry had not taken place. Should the indecent interruption of every thing that does not promote their own continuance, still prevail in a majority of the house of commons, the delay of public business will be well compensated by the facilities a new election will probably afford, and by the rapid progress of measures beneficial and necessary to the public that will take place hereafter, which, under the present jarring situation and equipoise of parties, cannot, in my poor opinion, ever be carried on with either certainty or dispatch.

‘ But I still dread the continuance of the present distractions. The politics of St. James’s have had ill luck for common, and, by some fatal ascendancy, have generally backwards trod the very paths they most anxiously sought to shun. The faction has emissaries spread far and wide to pluck allegiance from men’s hearts. It will demand, on the part of the king, an active, unemitting attention to replace himself in that state of pre-eminence and influence the constitution allows, and even requires. Let this never be out of mind. When his majesty hunts the stag, let him reflect that he is himself the hunted stag, the royal hart held at bay by a fierce, unrelenting faction, who deny, or mean to explain away, his dearest, clearest prerogatives. A prince so virtuous, who never was even suspected to mean any foul play to the state, ought to command in every honest service, and he will command no other, those servants whom he is now obliged to sue to, and often is refused. The onward path, ingenuous openness of fair sincerity, and prudent œconomy in private life, lead to peace of mind, and to heaven’s best gift, independence; they martial kings to greatness, to awe, and affectionate veneration. I know the delicate ground I tread; but I owe much to my sovereign, and, above all, truth; and I will pay the debt, though the most ungrateful office, yet the surest pledge of real love and respect that I can give. What have I to fear? I have lived too long; I never wished to survive the glory of my country; and I cannot form a wish so mean as to survive its liberties. Whig as I am,

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if liberty must expire, I hold its euthanaria to be in a mild despotism. But in all the bills of mortality, of human grandeur, never sure was so strange a catastrophe recorded, as a king taken prisoner, and a great and glorious constitution squirted to death, by the sportings of a set of prodigal, undone, gambling, friblish, impudent Eton boys.'

To a man who considers the most essential interests of the public with so much attention, and forms his opinions of them with so much confidence as the earl of Stair, we ought in justice to make allowance for that strain of invective, which a spirit of generous indignation prompts him to pour forth against those whom he regards as the most dangerous enemies of his king and country.

The Effects to be expected from the East India Bill, upon the Constitution of Great Britain, if passed into a Law. By William Pulteney, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

It appears that the substance of what is contained in this pamphlet was intended to have been delivered in parliament; and we cannot help regretting that the author's design was prevented from being carried into execution. For if a clear, sagacious, and forcible display of the pernicious effects which, in all probability, would have resulted from the late East India bill, if passed into a law, could have operated with due influence on the members of the house of commons, there is the strongest reason to think that it must have been rejected by a great majority. As such an event would not only have done honour to the wisdom and public virtue of the house of commons, but have precluded much disturbance in parliament, every lover of his country must deplore that it did not take place. But though Mr. Pulteney's sentiments have been delivered too late for the purpose originally intended, the publication of them, even at this period, may yet be of remarkable advantage. They will confirm the rectitude of the principles by which the house of lords was actuated in the rejection of that bill; and they will justify to the nation in general, the changes which have since happened in the executive department of the state.

Mr. Pulteney sets out with specifying, in a very candid manner, the different motives by which the members of the house of commons may have been influenced in voting for the East India bill. He admits, that with respect to certain particular points of legislative regulation connected with that bill, men of the greatest integrity may entertain opposite sentiments; but he thinks that no upright men can differ from each other in opinion, concerning the effects of the bill upon the constitution of this country. We should content ourselves with immediately laying before our readers the prospect of those effects, as delineated by this sensible writer; but it is necessary first to give his statement of what was intended by those who brought in the bill.

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‘ The intention of the bill is, to vest the whole powers of the East India company in seven directors, whose names were moved by the present secretary of state, and adopted by the house of commons. They are to hold their offices for four years, removeable, like the twelve judges, by an address of either house of parliament, and not by any other power: and for managing the commercial affairs of the company, nine gentlemen, moved for and adopted in the same manner, are to assist them, subject to their controul, and removeable by them.

‘ The effect of this is, to vest in these seven directors the whole influence of the offices of every kind in India, and at home, belonging to the company; and the whole influence arising from the transactions of their trade, in the purchase of goods for exportation, furnishing shipping, stores, and recruits; the influence arising from the method of selling their goods, by bringing forward or keeping back goods at the sales, or giving indulgencies as to payments, so as to accommodate those who are meant to be favoured; the influence arising from the favour they may shew to those who are now in England, and have left debts or effects in India, as to the mode of bringing home and recovering their fortunes; the influence of contracts of all kinds in India; of promotions, from step to step; of favour in the inland trade; of intimidation with respect to every person now there, who may come home with a fortune; both with regard to recovering his debts, and the means of remittance, and with regard to enquiries into his conduct; the influence upon foreign companies, or foreign states, who have establishments in that country,—who, in return, may have the means of acting upon individuals in this country; the influence upon the native princes of India, some of whom have already found the way of procuring the elections of members of parliament; and many other means of influence, which it is impossible to foresee, or to trace.

‘ The amount of the whole cannot be computed. It has been called equal to two or three millions a-year; but there can be no doubt that its magnitude is very great and extensive indeed, and that it may produce very remarkable consequences.

‘ This power is not, indeed, taken from the crown; but it is placed in new hands, who are independent during four years, equally of the crown and of the people. Before this bill, it was placed in twenty-four directors, chosen by the proprietors at large. The election was at first annual; but, by an act passed several years ago, six directors were to go out by rotation every year, and six new directors to be chosen; so that each director was elected for four years, after which he was to go out, and could not be re-elected for a certain interval.

‘ By this means, the patronage of the company was, in the first place, divided amongst twenty-four, instead of seven. It was, secondly, employed not to effect an influence in government,

ment, to which none of that description of men aspired, but was applied to shew gratitude to those who had assisted in their election, or from whom they might expect a similar support hereafter, and amongst their private friends and connections, Government, no doubt, must have had a share of the favours bestowed by the directors; but it was not of a very important nature, nor very extensive. It was not a share independent of the crown, but passed to the minister of the day. The directors having no joint object of obtaining the power of governing the state, could never unite in directing the patronage of the company to acquire that power; and their favours were diffused very generally over the kingdom, with little or no regard to the distinctions of state parties.

‘ The whole of this patronage will be diverted into a different channel; and being put into the hands of persons named by one of the state parties, it may be supposed that it will in future be chiefly employed as a state engine; and that it must produce very important and serious effects upon the future government of this country.

‘ The secretary of state, in the course of the progress of the bill in the house of commons, took occasion to declare, that he had never said, that at the end of the four years the nomination of the seven directors would be given to the crown; but added, that he feared it might. The object of which declaration might possibly be, to quiet, in some degree, the fears of those who dreaded an increase of influence in the crown; but the latter part of the declaration, was at the same time well adapted to keep up the hopes of those who favoured the bill, from an honest or an interested wish to increase, by this means, the influence of the crown.

‘ But men, accustomed to affairs, are apt to look more to the characters and principles of those who speak, than to what they say in the moment: they are apt to look to the nature of the human mind, in order to judge how men will act on great and important occasions. It is not any part of the principles of the party to whom the secretary of state has attached himself, to increase the influence of the crown; but they, like men of talents, in all ages, cannot be supposed averse to an independent power in themselves, which they may think it impossible they should ever abuse. To that party, this country owed, in a great measure, the Revolution; and the gratitude of the nation can never overpay them, unless by surrendering both king and people into their hands; but the same party, when in power, undoubtedly extended the influence of the crown by corruption, beyond the example of any former period; and they extended that influence to such a degree, that the crown found itself strong enough to dispense with their services. They have again been the means of reducing that influence very considerably, and they have been once more placed in office. No body will believe, that it is now their
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object, by this bill, to give, after four years, or at any future period, a new influence to the crown, which will not only far surpass what the crown has lately lost, but more than double what it ever at any time enjoyed; for if they did give it, the weight of that party in the scale of government, would no longer be felt.

‘ No person can therefore seriously doubt, that it is the intention of the present ministers to renew this bill in such a manner, as to prevent the full power of Indian patronage in their own hands, and I have no doubt that the utmost pains will be taken, during these four years, to reconcile the nation to the measure: I am persuaded most fully, that great exertions will at first be made to reform all glaring abuses in India; but when the power here is fixt, and applied to political influence, we may be sure, that no complaints will come home from India, to this country, against favourites; for who will dare to make a complaint? And every circumstance in the conduct of this bill convinces me, that the present plan decidedly is, to vest the whole power and patronage of India in the members of the present administration, not only during four years, but as long as India shall belong to this kingdom.

‘ If it is said that parliament, at the end of four years, may interpose, it is to be considered, that an administration, possessed of the power of India, is not removable in time of peace, either by the crown or by the voice of the people; and as a general election must come on in four years, and may come on much sooner, they must know very little of the state of elections in this island, who think, that with the whole power of government, and the whole power of India, so powerful a party in this kingdom, will not be able to take their measures, so as to have nothing to fear from a future parliament.’

In displaying the pernicious consequences which the bill must have had upon this country, Mr. Pulteney has recourse to Mr. De Lolme’s excellent treatise on the constitution of England; a work which has more than once been mentioned with merited applause, in our Review. Mr. Pulteney particularly appeals to book ii. chap. 9th, 10th, 17th, and 19th, of the English edition, 1781. The principal tendency of the passages to which our author refers, is to prove the extreme danger that must arise to the public, if any particular body or class of individuals were ever to acquire an independent share in the exercise of the governing authority. The proposition advanced, and which we believe to be incontrovertible, is, that in such a case we should behold the virtue and patriotism of the legislators extinguished, and an all-grasping aristocracy spread itself over the kingdom.—After placing, in the strongest light, the danger arising from such an event as that above mentioned, Mr. Pulteney thus proceeds:

‘ If the arguments which, from the assistance of this excellent author, I have ventured to use, are of any weight, they pre-

preclude all inquiry into the characters of those who have brought forward this measure, or of those who are named as directors in the bill. Let their characters be what they may, it does not alter the necessary effects of such a change in the constitution. These consequences must and will necessarily follow, in whatever hands so dangerous a power is placed; and it is a miserable system of government, which depends for its good effects upon the personal worth or integrity of those who are entrusted with great power; sure I am, that those who rely on such security, will be always most miserably disappointed at last.

‘ After what I have said, it is unnecessary to add another objection to the bill, namely, that we shall involve the personal interest, or rather the personal power, of a formidable aristocracy in this kingdom, in the preservation of our Indian territories, at all hazards. This may be attended with the most serious consequences, and may expose this country, not only to certain bankruptcy, but to the being left, at a critical moment, almost defenceless, and open to invasion.

‘ But it has been objected, that no other less exceptionable plan for India has been proposed, and that something must be done.—I am no advocate for the bill offered to the house of last year; but certainly the giving absolute power to a governor-general in India, removeable by the crown, did not endanger this constitution like the present bill; nor could the patronage proposed to be given to him, of offices to be held in India, be by that means equally applied, to operate upon this constitution. It could not operate at all against the necessary power of the crown, and it could not, so delegated, and at such a distance, operate very materially in favour of the precarious minister of the day.

‘ The proposers of this bill have shewn their consciousness, that their new directors cannot govern India, any more than the old, without a variety of new regulations; for they have brought in a bill which contains many such regulations. Why should not the experiment be first tried under these new regulations? The old directors, when aided by these regulations, by the controul of ministers and of parliament, and relieved, as to the appointing and recalling officers, from the controul of the general court, may, I trust, be able to govern India in as perfect a manner, as a distant dominion, so peculiarly circumstanced, is capable of being governed. We ought to try every experiment before risking the consequences of so material a change as this, in our present constitution: and many thinking men begin to pronounce that the total loss of India to Britain, would be a misfortune of inferior magnitude, to the necessary blow which the present bill would give to the liberties of this country.

‘ If this bill should pass, it will be a call upon every man of every rank, who is not embarked as an accessory to the measure,

sure, to unite in a systematic body to bring about its repeal. The question of general warrants, the question of the Middlesex election, and all the constitutional topics which have agitated mens minds in modern times, are as nothing when put in comparison with it. The fate of the kingdom, the freedom of Britons, will ultimately depend upon the effect of their united efforts to restore the breach that will thus be made in the best constitution which the admiring world has ever beheld.'

It affords us particular pleasure to behold a question of so great importance treated with such candour, discernment, zeal, and ability, as appear in the pamphlet now before us; especially as Mr. Pulteney's own sentiments, respectable from his judgment, are fortified by the authority of De Lolme; a writer of acknowledged eminence, and whose observations were drawn from the purest sources of rational polity, untinged with those party-views and prejudices, too conspicuous in the works of some others who have also investigated the English constitution.

Thoughts on East-India Affairs, most humbly submitted at this critical Conjunction, to the Consideration of the Legislature, and the Proprietors of East-India Stock. 8vo. 1s. Wallis.

It appears that the sentiments contained in this pamphlet were privately transmitted to ministers, so early as the year 1773; but only a partial use having been made of them, they are now presented to public consideration. Whether these propositions should be adopted or not, the resolution of submitting them to the wisdom of the legislature was highly commendable.

A Narrative of the Transactions in Bengal, during the Administration of Mr. Hastings. By Major John Scott. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

In this Narrative major Scott, who appears to be extremely well acquainted with the affairs in the East Indies, delivers a clear and connected detail of the transactions in Bengal, from the year 1772, when Mr. Hastings entered on the administration of that country, to the 31st of May last. So far as we may be permitted to judge of a representation neither supported in all its parts by documents, nor yet in any of them destitute of the strongest appearance of truth, we must acknowledge that major Scott has vindicated the conduct of the governor-general in a manner which seems satisfactory.

But the prejudices entertained in respect of an individual, is not the whole that the author of the present narrative has endeavoured to dissipate; for his observations extend to subjects yet more interesting to the public. It has been asserted by the author of the Ninth Report of the Select Committee, that the natives of Bengal are reduced to the lowest degree of depression and misery. Major Scott, however, pledges himself to prove, that since Bengal was under the British government, it

never

never enjoyed so great a degree of internal prosperity as it does at the present time. That Bengal has increased its population very considerably in every year since Mr. Hastings came to the government. That the manufactures have been greatly increased in point of quantity, and are yet more improved in quality, in the last ten years; and in particular, that the investments for the last three years are of a very superior quality to any since the company acquired the duanee. He informs us, that he has taken pains to ascertain these facts from the first authorities in London; and from the same he can also affirm, that raw silk, not only excellent in its kind, but in the improved mode of winding it, is now provided in such quantities in Bengal, that the importation of that article from Italy has decreased very considerably in the two last years; and, in all probability, Bengal will in future entirely supply this valuable material for the British manufactures. The culture of indigo, we are also informed, is now carried to a considerable extent in Bengal, and will annually increase in proportion to the growing demand for it.

In answer to another remark in the Ninth Report, that there is no trade in Bengal, except that of the company's investment for revenue, major Scott affirms that no assertion can be more untrue.

The fact is, says he, that for the last three years, a number of ships have arrived in Bengal from Denmark and Portugal. These ships have procured very rich cargoes without the smallest difficulty; and their whole amount may be estimated at one million sterling in each year, at the least. This fact is capable of proof. If the inland trade and the exports to the Gulphs have fallen off of late years, nothing can be more unjust than to impute this decline to the oppressions of the English. Are we accountable for the confusions which have prevailed for many years in Persia, for the depredations committed by Nadir Shaw in Indostan, or the total destruction of the Mogul empire? All these events happened before we were known in India, except in the character of merchants. At what period of the history of Bengal has that country enjoyed so long a peace as since we acquired possession of the duanee? Under the dominion of the native princes, scarcely a year passed without an invasion of some part of the province, or in which several were not put to death, either for being engaged in actual rebellion, or from an apprehension of their disaffection to the despot in office. I do not know a single instance of a native of India being put to death, except by a regular and legal sentence, since we became the sovereigns of Bengal. Let the mild conduct of the English be compared with the inhuman cruelties perpetrated by the Dutch and the Portuguese, in their progress to empire in Asia, and we shall be less inclined to vilify those of our countrymen who have distinguished themselves in Indostan. When I heard a celebrated and illustrious

lustrious officer declaim, in general terms, without specifying the murders, massacres, monopolies, and oppressions, which have been committed in India, I was inclined to believe that he meant, as in his American manifesto, "to speak daggers, but to use none." I declare again most solemnly, that neither murders nor massacres have been committed by the English in Bengal: oppressions may have been exercised in that country as in every other, but these have been greatly exaggerated indeed: and the only monopolies existing are those of salt and opium, which, without oppression, produce an immense revenue to the East India company.

In treating of the number and condition of the inhabitants in the territories of the East India company, the author thus concludes:

'I do not know what authority Mr. Burke has to pronounce, that the thirty millions I have enumerated, groan under every species of oppression and misery. I have the utmost respect for the abilities, the ingenuity, and the invention of that gentleman; but I can now and then oppose a fact to a flourish.'

Major Scott afterwards makes a few remarks on the late East India bill, concerning which, had it passed into a law, he believes in his conscience that it would have deprived us of our possessions in Indostan.

A candid Investigation of the prevailing Topic. No Price, nor Bookseller's Name.

This pamphlet relates to the interference alledged to have taken place in the house of lords, in their deliberations on the East India bill. The author, upon the supposition that the facts were really incontrovertible, maintains it to be perfectly consistent with the principles of the constitution; and, sure we are, that, had he pleased, he might have added, with those of common sense. There can be no doubt, that the most regular mode by which the sovereign may oppose any bill, prejudicial in his opinion, either to the prerogative or to the public, is by denying his assent towards passing it into a law. But though this be strictly, and in theory, the only unexceptionable method of procedure, it certainly may be departed from, without the smallest injury to the constitution. The power of the crown to negative any bill, is universally admitted to be unquestionable; and we should not entertain a high opinion of the wisdom or historical knowledge of him who would affirm, that the public tranquillity was less endangered by deferring the rejection of a bill to the royal negative, than by endeavouring to stop its progress to the throne so far as such an end might be obtained by the influence of reason. In the case now alluded to, our author observes, (and the same observation is made in one or more of the other pamphlets mentioned in our present Review) that the circumstances of the sovereign were peculiarly embarrassing; as the ministers, for the aggrandizement of their own power, are said to have been actually exerting against him the whole influence of the offices which they held under the crown. With regard to the argument

argument that the sovereign ought to listen to the advice of none but such as are members of his privy-council, it is too unreasonable to be mentioned. Though it be our fervent prayer, that the affairs of state may ever be conducted with wisdom, we should be sorry to think that heaven's best gift was confined within the walls even of the cabinet.

The author of this pamphlet has, in our opinion, candidly investigated what he calls the Prevailing Topic; and we entirely approve of the observations and arguments which he has advanced.

History of the Dispute with America, from its Origin in 1754.

Written in the Year 1774. By John Adams, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

That Mr. Adams is intimately acquainted with the general state of America, the dispositions of the inhabitants, and their genuine sentiments respecting the claims of Great Britain, we cannot entertain the smallest doubt. His candor (we shall not say his veracity) may perhaps be called in question; as the History was drawn up at a period when the passions of the Americans were greatly inflamed, and as it seems to have been actually calculated for exciting them to a resistance of the British legislature. Notwithstanding these circumstances, we must acknowledge that the narrative is written with more moderation, and a greater appearance of dispassionate views and reflections, than might have been expected at that juncture from a man who seems to have embarked with so much vehemence in the cause of American liberty. From this consideration we shall lay before our readers what he advances concerning the origin of the scheme for the taxation of the colonies.

'In the year 1764, Mr. Bernard transmitted home to different noblemen and gentlemen, four copies of his Principles of Law and Polity, with a preface, which proves incontestibly, that the project of new regulating the American colonies was not first suggested to him by the ministry, but by him to them. The words of this preface are these: "The present expectation that a new regulation of the American governments will soon take place, probably arises more from the opinion the public has of the abilities of the present ministry, than from any thing that has transpired from the cabinet. It cannot be supposed that their penetration can overlook the necessity of such a regulation, nor their public spirit fail to carry it into execution. But it may be a question, whether the present is a proper time for this work; more urgent business may stand before it; some preparatory steps may be required to precede it; but these will only serve to postpone. As we may expect that this reformation, like all others, will be opposed by powerful prejudices, it may not be amiss to reason with them at leisure, and endeavour to take off their force before they become opposed to government."

'Upon these words, it is impossible not to observe, first, that the ministry had never signified to him any intention of new

regulating the colonies; and therefore that it was he who officiously put them upon the pursuit of this Will-with-a-wisp, which has led them into so much mire. Second, the flattery with which he insinuates these projects into the minds of the ministry, as matters of absolute necessity, which their great penetration could not fail to discover, nor their great regard to the public omit. Third, the importunity with which he urges a speedy accomplishment of his pretended reformation of the governments. And, fourth, his consciousness that these schemes would be opposed, although he affects to expect from powerful prejudices only that opposition which all America says had been dictated by sound reason, true policy, and eternal justice. The last thing I shall take notice of is, the false insinuation, that such new regulations were then generally expected. This is so absolutely false, that, except Bernard himself, and his junto, scarcely any body on this side the water had any suspicion of it; insomuch, that if Bernard had made public at that time his Preface and Principles, as he sent them to the ministry, it is much to be doubted whether he could have lived in this country; certain it is, he would have had no friends in this province, out of the junto.

The intention of the junto was to procure a revenue to be raised in America by act of parliament. Nothing was further from their designs and wishes, than the drawing or sending this revenue into the exchequer in England, to be spent there in discharging the national debt, and lessening the burdens of the people there. They chose to have the fingering of the money themselves. Their design was, that the money should be applied, first in a large salary to the governor. This would gratify Bernard, and render him and all other governors, not only independent of the people, but still more absolutely a slave to the will of the minister. They intended likewise a salary for the lieutenant-governor. This would appease Mr. Hutchinson. In the next place, they intended a salary to the judges of common law, as well as admiralty. And thus the whole government, executive and judicial, was to be rendered wholly independent of the people, (and their representatives rendered useless, insignificant, and even burthensome) and absolutely dependent upon, and under the direction of the will of the minister of state. They intended further to new model the whole continent of North America; make an intire new division of it into distinct, though more extensive and less numerous colonies, to sweep away all the charters upon the continent, with the destroying besom of an act of parliament, and reduce all the governments to the plan of the royal governments, with a nobility in each colony, not hereditary indeed, at first, but for life. They did indeed flatter the ministry and people in England with distant hopes of a revenue from America, at some future period, to be appropriated to national uses there. But this was not to happen, in their minds, for some time. The governments must be new modelled, new regulated, reformed first, and then the governments

ments here would be able and willing to carry into execution any acts of parliament, or measures of the ministry, for fleecing the people here to pay debts, or support pensioners on the American establishment, or bribe electors, or members of parliament; or any other purpose that a virtuous ministry could desire.

But as ill luck would have it, the British financier was as selfish as themselves, and instead of raising money for them, chose to raise it for himself. He chose to get the revenue into the exchequer, because he had hungry cormorants enough about him in England, whose cawings were more troublesome to his ears, than the croaking of the ravens in America. And he thought if America could afford any revenue at all, and he could get it by authority of parliament, he might have it himself, to give to his friends, as well as raise it for the junto here, to spend themselves, or give to theirs.

In the progress of the narrative, Mr. Adams animates his countrymen with the assurance, that the people of Great Britain were not united against them; that the nation was loaded with debts and taxes; and that without the trade of America, it could neither long support its fleet and army, nor pay the interest of its debt. In support of the first of these propositions, the author appeals to the sentiments, publicly delivered, of a few eminent persons in the British senate; but, had he pleased, we presume he might have likewise urged his argument by other documents, no less animating to the American mal-contents than derogatory to British patriotism. The assurance of parliamentary opposition to the measures of the British government, seems to have been, in fact, not only the strongest incentive of the Americans to resistance, but the only object on which, exclusive of the hope of foreign aid, they could depend for a successful issue to the rebellion. It is observable, that while Mr. Adams was doubtless mistaken in the opinion he either really entertained or affected, of the incapacity of Great Britain for supporting the war, he never once suggested the probability that she would be discomfited by her own mismanagement; so contrary to all rational expectation was the issue of that unfortunate dispute!

The following are the plausible arguments by which the Americans were excited to revolt.

The national debt, before the last war, was near an hundred millions. Surely America had no share in running into that debt. Where is the reason then that she should pay it? But a small part of the sixty millions spent in the last war was for her benefit. Did not she bear her full share of the burden of the last war in America? Did not this province pay twelve shillings in the pound in taxes, for the support of it; and send a sixth or seventh part of her sons into actual service; and, at the conclusion of the war, was she not left half a million sterling in debt? Did not all the rest of New England exert itself in proportion? What is the reason that the Massachusetts has paid its debt, and the British minister, in fourteen years of peace, has paid so little of his? Much of it might have been paid in this time,

had not such extravagance and peculation prevailed, as ought to be an eternal warning to America, never to trust such a minister with her money. What is the reason that the great and necessary virtues of simplicity, frugality, and oeconomy, cannot live in England, Scotland, and Ireland, as well as in America?

'We have much more to say still. Great Britain has confined all our trade to herself. We are willing she should, as far as it can be for the good of the empire. But we say that we ought to be allowed as credit, in the account of public burdens and expences, so much paid in taxes, as we are obliged to sell our commodities to her cheaper than we could get for them at foreign markets. This difference is really a tax upon us, for the good of the empire. We are obliged to take from Great Britain commodities that we could purchase cheaper elsewhere. This difference is a tax upon us, for the good of the empire. We submit to this cheerfully, but insist that we ought to have credit for it, in the account of the expences of the empire, because it is really a tax upon us. Another thing. I will venture a bold assertion: the three million Americans, by the tax aforesaid, upon what they are obliged to export to Great Britain only, what they are obliged to import from Great Britain only, and the quantities of British manufactures, which in these climates they are obliged to consume, more than the like number of people in any part of the three kingdoms, ultimately pay more of the taxes and duties that are apparently paid in Great Britain, than any three million subjects in the three kingdoms. All this may be computed, and reduced to stubborn figures by the minister, if he pleases. We cannot do it. We have not the accounts, records, &c. Now let this account be fairly stated, and I will engage for America, upon any penalty, that she will pay the overplus, if any, in her own constitutional way, provided it is to be applied for national purposes, as paying off the national debt, maintaining the fleet, &c. not to the support of a standing army in time of peace, placemen and pensioners, &c.'

Whatever may have been the precise æra at which the American leaders first determined to shake off the authority of the British government, it is evident from this narrative that the seeds of rebellion had long been fermenting in the colonies. The people, naturally mutinous in their dispositions, at least in some of the provinces, beheld with impatience even such a number of troops as, instead of being formidable, was hardly sufficient for preserving the public tranquillity; and the country resounded with such clamours of whigs and tories, as portended a scene of mutual hostilities, which might terminate in some important revolution.

A Letter from an American, now resident in London, to a Member of Parliament, on the Subject of the restraining Proclamation; and containing Strictures on Lord Sheffield's Pamphlet on the Commerce of the American States. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The author of this Letter endeavours to establish the opinion, that the prohibiting of the Americans from trading to our West-India

India islands, is a measure immediately hurtful to both countries. He observes, that the articles which the West Indians indispensably stand in need of, are flour, biscuit, Indian corn, rice, beans, peas, potatoes, salt beef, pork, cheese, butter, beer, cod, and other kinds of salt fish, whale-oil, candles, tallow, soap, tobacco, naval stores, horses, poultry, live cattle, bar-iron, building wood of all kinds, frames of houses, masts, spars, hoghead staves, heading, shingles, plank both pine and oak, &c. That the United States can not only abundantly, and at all times, supply these articles, but can furnish them on far more moderate terms than they can be imported from Europe. After shewing that a free trade between America and the West India islands tends to promote the interests of each, by a mutual exchange of necessary commodities, he affirms that, if Great Britain should not permit such a commercial intercourse, the States will unite more closely together, and, retaliating upon this country, form a system of navigation, from which we shall be entirely excluded. He concludes with observing, that the commerce recommended can be opposed only by those who do not consider that the more trade and intercourse the United States will have with Great Britain, the greater will be the importation of British manufactures; and the more it will tend to impoverish and weaken them, while, in the same proportion, it will contribute to her aggrandizement. Though this conclusion be just, the premises are questionable.

It is doubtless the universal tendency of commerce, that the country which exchanges its own manufactures for the raw materials of another, profits most by the trade. But would not the intercourse which this author recommends, have likewise an important tendency, viz. that of aggrandizing the naval power of the United States? When a zealous American urges the expediency of a commerce, confessedly injurious to his own country, it seems not uncandid to suspect him of an insidious design.

A brief and impartial Review of the State of Great Britain, at the Commencement of the Session of 1783. Humbly addressed to the Right Hon. and Hon. the Lords and Commons of Great Britain. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This political Reviewer is a zealous panegyrist of the late administration, in the praise of which he labours to display the advantages procured by the definitive treaty with America, and likewise those which have been stipulated, in the negotiation for the same purpose, with the Dutch. Nor does he appear less inclined to establish the reputation of the discarded statesmen, in domestic than in foreign policy. In this essential part of his survey, we meet with no other subject of encomium than the wonderful virtues of the coalition; though what they really are, notwithstanding the author's magnificent delineation, we must own ourselves at a loss to conceive. It has

happened on this occasion, as on many others, that premature panegyric is only satire anticipated in disguise. Had the author, instead of terminating his Review at the commencement, continued it to the conclusion, of the present session, perhaps he would have found it proper to abate of that eulogy, which may have been founded on too ardent expectation. From the abilities however which he discovers, we entertain much less doubt of his discernment than of his impartiality.

Instructions to a Statesman. Humbly inscribed to the Right Hon. George Earl Temple. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

A person unacquainted with the expedients often practised by authors, might perhaps imagine, from the title of this pamphlet, that it contained some important lessons in the science of politics; but nothing is farther from the truth. It is an attempt, by no means conducted with great address, to throw ridicule on the man who, without being a member of administration, should presume, on any occasion, to offer advice to his sovereign. When we mention that it is dedicated to earl Temple, the subject and purport of it may be sufficiently understood. The author, in his attempt at humour, has ascribed these instructions to a hermit in Stow-gardens, who was celebrated through the neighbourhood for his ingenuity in the carving of tobacco-stoppers: and, not to deviate in analogy from our author, we humbly conceive that these same instructions will not be much misapplied, should they be used for the honourable purpose of lighting tobacco-pipes.

A Letter to a Country Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

The writer of this letter examines, with a satisfactory degree of precision, the limits within which the influence of the crown may be justifiably exerted on the deliberations of parliament. He admits, that the most constitutional manner in which the sovereign can oppose any bill inimical to the rights of the crown, is by interposing his negative. But as such an exertion of the royal power, however well founded in the theory of the constitution, requires to be practised with delicacy and reserve, that it is more eligible to preclude the necessity of a recourse to an expedient which is the ultimate barrier of the prerogative. The author hesitates not to affirm, and we believe it will not be denied, that the minister who brought the East-India bill into the house of commons, exerted all his influence for carrying it through both houses of parliament. If therefore personal influence may be exerted by a subject without any legal controul, the author thinks it would be unreasonable to debar the sovereign from a similar intimation of his sentiments, when, by such conduct, he only endeavours to prevent a measure, which he has a right by his prerogative to overturn. The author likewise, by arguments which we cannot but approve, fully justifies the conduct of the noble

noble lord who has lately been accused of officiousness in offering his advice to his sovereign, on a subject of the utmost importance to the crown.

The whole of the Letter is written with good sense, moderation, and an attachment to the spirit of the constitution; nor can we refrain from expressing a wish, that in so turbulent a period as the present, the author's sentiments may meet with due attention.

Secret Influence public Ruin! An Address to the young Premier, on the Principles of his Politics and the Causes of his late Promotion: with a Speech, by Mr. Fox, on the spirited Resolution of the House of Commons, December 17, 1783, occasioned by the daring Mandate which produced that Effect. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

Had the author been pleased to denominate his pamphlet Secret Influence, Public Salvation! the allusion, though not favourable to his design, would, for any thing that appears to the contrary, have been infinitely more just. The pamphlet consists of two productions; the former, an address to the young Premier, on the Principles of his Politics, and the Causes of his late Promotion; and the latter, a Speech by Mr. Fox, on the Resolution of the House of Commons, December 17, 1783. In respect to the Address, it breathes such petulance and personal malignity, as well as party-spirit, that it must serve rather to aggrandize than depreciate the illustrious character which it attempts to traduce, with so much injustice and asperity.

The Contrast, a political Pasticcio; or an Estimate of the Coalition Ministry. 8vo. 1s. 6d. T. and J. Egerton.

The open and vehement animosity which had so long subsisted between those who last year coalesced into one administration, afforded the public strong reason to suspect, that a union so repugnant to the general sentiments and habits of mankind, could not be founded upon any other motives than those of interest and convenience. It seemed unaccountable, upon any principle of human action, that men, however generous and placable in their temper, should, all at once, profess for each other the most cordial esteem and attachment, in direct contradiction to the reiterated and strongest affirmations of mutual aversion and contempt, and sometimes even of horror. Such having been the conduct of the different parties, it was natural that their union should become an object of public censure and ridicule. Accordingly, scarce a week has passed since that time, without accumulating in the print-shops satirical allusions to the coalition. For our own part however we should, in conformity to our declaration almost a twelvemonth ago, have continued willing to forget every unfavourable circumstance preceding the coalition, had we found that the administration to which it gave birth, was actuated with a sincere desire of promoting

the good of the public.—As the last public act of the late ministry has been so justly condemned by the strongest political arguments, it will afford our readers a diversity of entertainment to be presented with something written in a different strain, by the author of the satirical production before us. With this view we have extracted the following passages.

‘ In regard to the conduct of the noble and honourable members of the coalition, during the short time they held the reins of government, I shall endeavour to shew, in a few words, that they accomplished more for the benefit of the state than had ever been done by ministers in so short a period.

‘ First, as to the termination of hostilities: they concluded the definitive treaties with France and Spain in less than six months after the ratification of the preliminaries; and in less than nine months had proceeded a good way towards the conclusion of a peace with Holland. But their merit principally rested on this point, that, by a kind of magic, they contrived, without violating or altering a single article of the preliminary treaty, to convert what was before the most ignominious Britain had ever submitted to, into one both honourable and beneficial: (at least so they have assured the parliament themselves; and we cannot have it on better authority.) And as former ministers had committed a great irregularity and oversight, in not having hostilities publicly proclaimed, they were determined not to incur a similar censure, by neglecting to have the peace proclaimed; which was therefore done with all due formality.

‘ Money being wanted, when they came into office, they quickly negotiated a loan, *sine multis ambagibus*: and the public might be confident they had a good bargain; as in order to prevent the usurious offers of strangers, they took care to confine it chiefly to the circle of their own friends and dependants.

‘ It will be readily acknowledged, that it was impossible for them, in the present depressed state of our finances, to carry much to the sinking fund: it is enough for them, if they have prevented the whole from being entitled to that appellation. Yet if they have not paid off any of the national debts, I am credibly informed, they have wiped off their own, to a very considerable amount. Now, charity begins at home, and we may suppose the public’s turn would have come next, had they been permitted to continue in office. Indeed, we have reason to think that they harboured a design of this nature; and from the gradual falling of the stocks, we must conclude, they only waited till they were sufficiently low, when a great part might be paid off at once without difficulty.

‘ So much for war and peace, and the operations of finance. As to commercial concerns, they were in no hurry to form any treaties of commerce with America, or any other of our late opponents: for they judiciously considered, that after so long
and

and bloody a war, our sailors would require some little breathing time, to have the opportunity of enjoying the fruits of their labour.' —

'The care and preservation of the British navy being the immediate, and almost the sole charge of the first commissioner of the admiralty in time of peace; who could be pointed out as better qualified for such an appointment, than one who had already shewn so much circumspection in preserving his majesty's ships not only from the fury of the elements, but also from the attacks of the enemy.' —

'Mr. F—x, out of office, is rather prone to a condescension, though certainly proceeding from an amiable motive, yet unbecoming a man of his rank in life, in mixing too much with the rabble, drinking and shaking hands with them, and on certain occasions asking favours of them; but when he becomes a secretary of state, he knows how to support his dignity, to dismiss importunate solicitors, and to keep such ragamuffins at a proper distance.

'Mr. F—x, when out of office, and in a minority, does not value a rush all the votes and resolves of parliament, but treats them with ridicule and contempt; when he becomes a minister, or is supported by a majority (which he thinks as good) the film is cleared from before his eyes, and he perceives that a majority of the house of commons is omnipotent, as well as omniscient and infallible; and that the minister, or the man who dares to set himself against it, merits nothing less than parliamentary impeachment.

'Mr. F—x, out of office, abhors all taxes that are not laid on luxuries and superfluities: Mr. F—x, in office, finds that the supplies must be raised at all events, and that taxes on the necessities of life are best, as being the most infallibly productive.

'Mr. F—x, out of office, thinks that ministers should explicitly open their minds, in every stage of business, to parliament, though it should convey information to an enemy: in office, he deems it profane, in any member, to attempt to pry into the mysteries of the cabinet.

'While Mr. F—x is in office, during a time of war, he finds the resources of the state exhausted, our army annihilated, and our navy mouldered away; so that any peace he may be concerned in making must be acceptable: but if, on the conclusion of the war, he is out of office, he suddenly discovers that public credit was flourishing, the army undiminished, and the navy powerful beyond what it had been at any former period.'

This ingenious author, after several ironical touches on other members of the late administration, proceeds to contrast their public conduct, in and out of office, by extracts from the Parliamentary Register.—Never did men appear more different from each other, than these *honest* statesmen are evidently from themselves,

selves, in this contrast.—We must not omit informing our readers of a piece of intelligence we meet with in this pamphlet, that during the last administration, Mr. E——d B——ke has obtained a pension of 2500l. a year.

A Letter addressed to Lord North and Mr. Fox. By Francis Dobbs, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

In this Letter Mr. Dobbs, after stating concisely the great principles of the British constitution, proceeds to expose the pernicious effects of that political union which took place last year between two parties, and has been already stigmatized with most opprobrious epithets. He scruples not to affirm that it is a coalition of lord North and Mr. Fox, against the king, the lords, and the people. His expostulation, we must acknowledge, is tempered, at the same time, with such marks of candour, as, by testifying his impartiality, give additional force to his observations.

A serious Address to the Public, concerning the Tax on Receipts: 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

—This author reprobates the tax on receipts, from a variety of considerations. He endeavours to shew that it is not only impracticable in its nature, but in its tendency partial and unjust, and in its probable effects vexatious, without much increasing the revenue. He accuses the late ministers of the most palpable absurdity, in acknowledging the absolute necessity of reducing the taxes upon trade in general, and at the same time continuing to tax it, with the most blind and obstinate perseverance. If we may judge from the positive manner in which this writer delivers his observations, he appears to have had communication with ministers relative to taxes. ‘So fearful are they, says he, of losing their places and power, that they cannot bear even to hear of any equal taxation that will affect landed and commercial men in common, and in just proportions.’—After reprehending, in strong terms, the conduct of ministers with respect to taxes, the author makes a transition to the character of him, in particular, whom he styles *the great orator and leader*, and describes as the Catiline of this country. But for the personal traits of similitude upon which he establishes the application of a name so superlatively odious in the annals of human kind, we refer our readers to the pamphlet.

A Letter to the People of Scotland, on the present State of the Nation. By James Boswell, Esq. 1s. Dilly.

In this letter Mr. Boswell, who has always distinguished himself by an attachment to public liberty, endeavours to excite among his countrymen a higher degree of national spirit, in matters of politics, than has for many years been manifested by the people of Scotland. In particular, he entreats their attention to the alarming attempt of those who devised a late East-India bill;

bill; a measure which he regards as the most dangerous that ever yet was hazarded in parliament. The consequences of this bill Mr. Boswell considers in two lights; first, as affecting property; and, secondly, as affecting the constitution. Its efficacy in the former of these views, is sufficiently obvious; and in respect of the latter, Mr. Boswell illustrates it in the following manner.

‘ We were to have had the establishment of a dominion civil and military, of vast and various extent, vested in persons independent of his most sacred majesty, the lawful sovereign of the realm. The patronage annexed to this dominion would have been immense, and infinitely beyond what is annexed to the crown of Great Britain. The very same right honourable gentleman who insisted that the influence of the crown ought to be diminished, and actually prevailed in having it rigidly curtailed, drove on this bill, by which seven men proposed by himself were to have an influence far beyond what the crown ever had. If both these measures were parts of one pre-conceived plan; if, while he was diminishing the power of the crown, he entertained the project of aggrandizing his own power, his abilities, great as we must acknowledge them to be, are yet of mightier extent than we have ever imagined. Had the appointment taken place, “ the crown would have been a bauble which no man of spirit would have chosen to wear,” as was nobly said by a great and intrepid master of our constitution, and most powerful orator. There would have been in Britain one constitutional king,—and an unconstitutional heptarchy, not of kings, but of emperors, and that heptarchy nominated by the right honourable gentleman. He might then have bid defiance to any other power in the kingdom. He might have had his commission prolonged during all the days of his life, and sat supreme in his circle of the house of commons possessed of such a sevenfold shield.

— vulgi stante corona.’

That there should have been, in the house of commons, so great a majority for such a measure, is, Mr. Boswell observes, seriously distressing. But he thinks it by no means strange, that the lords should oppose a bill, the direct tendency of which would have been so fatal to the power of the crown; since, according to Blackstone, “ the nobility are the pillars which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins.”

The nobility, therefore, in this case, having a common cause with the king, why, Mr. Boswell asks, should it be supposed—why should it be rumoured, that the influence of his majesty determined them against a bill, which the security of their own order called upon them to reject. But admitting such influence to have really taken place, our author considers the exercise of it not only as a natural effect, but absolutely unavoidable.

' Can it, says he, be seriously maintained as constitutional doctrine, that when the king hath recommended to parliament, in a speech from the throne, any particular business, and a bill is brought in concerning that business, containing clauses to which the king cannot possibly consent, his majesty shall be restrained from consulting with any of his hereditary counsellors, or any person whatever, and from signifying his mind either privately or publicly ?

' It hath been said, that ministers alone are responsible for public measures, and therefore, none but actual ministers can be allowed to advise the sovereign : but there is here a fallacy which it is not difficult to detect. Public measures in the *executive* part of administration, are those for which ministers are responsible ; and therefore, they dare not carry into execution what they know to be wrong, or rather what they fear may subject them to punishment ; but public measures in the *deliberative* part of administration, are not within the province of ministers, but belong to parliament, until they have passed both houses, and come to receive the assent or negative of the king ; and then, and not till then, does the ministers responsibility in that branch commence.' —

' If it be urged, that it would have been more constitutional to have left the matter to the royal negative, I, in the first place, deny the proposition ; and, in the next place, I maintain, that acting in that manner might have occasioned a more violent roar of faction, if we can suppose the bill to have passed both houses.'

The author concludes his letter with recommending to the people of Scotland, in their several counties, boroughs, corporations, and public bodies of every kind, to address his majesty upon this momentous crisis ; to express their sincere satisfaction, that a bill of so dangerous a nature as that for vesting the affairs of the East India company in certain commissioners, has been rejected by the house of lords ; assuring his majesty of their firm attachment to his royal person and government, and of their support of such ministers as his majesty may be graciously pleased to choose, at a time when stability in the direction of the state is of the most essential consequence.

Letters addressed to the Volunteers of Ireland, on the Subject of a parliamentary Reform. By John Jebb, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

The spirit of legislation appears to have taken so strong a hold of the Irish volunteers, that we know not where it may terminate. Whatever be the issue, the scene is certainly novel. A numerous body of individuals, in arms, over-awing the government of a kingdom, without the most distant imputation of being insurgents ; and applying for the prescriptions of a doctor of physic in favour of the constitution of their country. The doctor, however, it must be acknowledged, acts the politician with no bad address ; and that the Irish volunteers are zealous patriots, we cannot entertain any doubt.

POETRY,

P O E T R Y.

The Christmas Tale: a Poetical Address and Remonstrance to the Young Ministry. 4to. 1s. 6d. Faulder.

This writer, who seems to be well acquainted with our present political system, and no contemptible satirist, diverts himself with a description of the late change of the ministry, and the supposed inexperience of some of its younger members.

'The mule of state ungracious urchins stride,
Fathers get down, and let their children ride.'

The state of the nation at this crisis, is not unaptly described in the following lines:

'What is the state of England all this time?

I answer, in one word—a pantomime—

A speaking pantomime—where nothing's meant,

No business, but a deal of incident;

Scene follows scene, change follows change so fast,

We hardly can remember which was last:

The *Dramatis Personæ* scarce arrang'd,

All is confounded first, then all is chang'd.

For bus'ness while we look in vain from each,

No one gets farther than an empty speech.

In each, two parties form'd, the old and young,

Now the young party, now the old are flung.

Nothing does either party think about,

But how to drive the other party out.'

This gentleman is an advocate for the late ministry. The principal object of his animadversion is the juvenility of Mr. Pitt; but he says not a word of his integrity, or his acknowledged abilities.

Hope: a Poem. By the Rev. Samuel Hayes, A. M. 4to. 1s. Doddsley.

Some passages, in this poem, have considerable merit; and the following, which is descriptive of the situation of those sailors who escaped in a boat after the wreck of the *Centaur*, will probably be acknowledged to be both nervous and pathetic.

'Thro' the swoln billows of th'Atlantick deep

They drive, obedient to the current's force;

And while around them threat'ning tempests sweep,

Nor chart, nor compass, guide their perilous course.

Amidst the horrors of the tedious night,

From the moon's shrouded orb no lustre darts;

No glimm'ring star, with tutelary light,

To the strain'd eye it's wonted aid imparts.

Chill cold benumbs the limbs:—with rapid pace,

Convulsive Famine stalks, and writhes the haggard face.'

E'en thus, though death, in varied form, assail,

Night after night, they stem the foaming waves:

Chear'd by the jocund song, and festive tale,

The dauntless spirit ev'ry danger braves.

Dear

Dear are the relatives of social life,

Dear is Britannia's long-relinquish'd foil ;

But dearer far, the claims of son and wife ;

For them they brave th' extremity of toil.

These strong ideas flatt'ring Hope suggest,

Confirm the slacken'd nerves, and fire the drooping breast.*

To counterbalance this, and some other truly poetical descriptions, we have many flat and many turgid expressions. In which respect, the conclusion, a part usually the most correct, appears defective.

D I V I N I T Y.

Sermons on various Subjects. By the Rev. Mr. Edward Arthur, Minister at Baremoor, Etal, and last at Swalswell, near Newcastle. 8vo. 5s. Larv.

These are posthumous discourses, published for the benefit of the author's two daughters, who live at Etal, in Northumberland. They have a tincture of the old Presbyterian style and doctrine ; and are chiefly calculated for readers of that denomination ; or for those who prefer sermons 'in the good old way,' to the more elaborate and elegant compositions of the present age.

Sketches of History. In Six Sermons. By William Godwin. Small 8vo. 3s. Cadell.

The title of Sermons is indeed no recommendation of a book ; and for this reason probably the author of these discourses has chosen to call them, in more alluring and fashionable terms, Sketches of History. He has illustrated and enforced the following subjects : the resignation of Aaron ; the degeneracy of Hazael ; the arraignment, the crucifixion, the resurrection, and the character of Jesus. These occurrences in the sacred history, and this exalted character, suggest many striking and pathetical reflections ; and the author very warmly, and in general very properly, addresses himself to the feeling and sensibility of his readers.

A friendly Dialogue between a common Unitarian Christian, and an Athanasian. 12mo. 3d. Johnson.

This Dialogue is written in a plain, familiar style, adapted to the capacities of common readers. The design of it is to evince the propriety and expediency of the Unitarian form of worship, as practised at the chapel in Essex-street. In the course of the debate, the Athanasian is soon vanquished, and converted by the Unitarian. The author's learning and Christian spirit deserve commendation ; but his name is not mentioned. The present edition is published, with considerable alterations, by Dr. Disney.

A general View of the Arguments for the Unity with God; and the Pre-existence of Christ; from Reason, from the Scriptures, and from History. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. 12mo. 2d. Johnson.

In publishing this small tract, the author professes to have two objects in view: 'one is a cheap and extensive circulation; and the other to serve as a guide to those persons, who may wish to preserve upon their minds a just idea of the place and value of any particular argument, in a miscellaneous controversy; and to enable them to judge how far any particular advantage in argumentation, affects the merits of the question in debate.'

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M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Poetic Endings; or, a Dictionary of Rhimes, single and double. By the Rev. Dr. John Trusler. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Baldwin.

The public-spirited and enterprising author of this work, who has for some years past employed his talents for the benefit of mankind, having pointed out to people of moderate fortunes the way to be rich and respectable; having supplied the farmer with rules of practical husbandry; the good housewife with family tables; the young gentleman with the principles of politeness; the unlearned writer with a treatise on synonymous words; the student with a system of chronology; the officiating clergyman with instructions for sublime reading; the preacher with a course of sermons ready for the pulpit, &c. &c. has now extended his benevolence to a set of geniuses, who frequently want a little charitable assistance, that is, the minor poets. In this work, he condescends to instruct them in the art of coupling rhymes, ringing their bells harmoniously, pacing in proper order, and approaching with propriety and decorum to the court of Parnassus.

Letters on Wit, Humour, &c. to which is added one concerning the Disfranchisement of Ireland. 8vo. 1s. Law.

One of this writer's remarks will be sufficient to give the reader a competent idea of his literary character. Having occasion to mention Cowley, he tells us, 'that some of his compositions

positions are neither poetry nor prose, neither fish, flesh, nor good red-herring, but purely metaphysical.' If the reader is *pleased* with this specimen, let him have recourse to these Letters, and his taste will be gratified.

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This Grammar is easy and methodical. The rules are illustrated by a variety of examples; and what is extremely useful, though seldom observed in grammars, *some* of the most remarkable peculiarities of the English and French languages are exhibited under one view, in collateral columns.

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Thoughts on Bonds of Resignation. 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

This writer, who seems to be a gentleman of the law, has thrown together some rational and impartial observations on bonds of resignation. Bonds of general resignation ought, he says, to be abolished in every instance, as indecent in their principle; irreconcilable in many cases to the rules of law, productive of vexatious and litigious suits; injurious to the peace, fortune, and liberty of incumbents, &c. As to a bond entered into by a clerk at his presentation, to resign his living to a particular *son* of the patron, when that son is ready for institution, this, he thinks, must be allowed. But, says he, very justly, 'to prevent the probable inconvenience of protracted litigation and discordant decisions, a bill should undoubtedly be framed for the purpose of correcting the controversy; and of declaring, or even altering the law, upon the just principles of general convenience, of policy, and of decorum.'

